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A summary of the empirical research relevant to the problems of educational and cultural deprivation is presented in an annotated bibliography. The hypothesis, methods, sampling, findings, and conclusions are contained in each reference. Each is classified as to home environment, siblings and peer group, introduction to school, school programs and personnel, language and cognition, personality and learning, socialization and motivation, intelligence, aptitudes, abilities, and school achievement. Dates of bibliographic entries range from 1930 to 1964 with most of the articles written since 1950. In all, 114 articles are included.

Some of research findings are that: the culturally deprived were handicapped by language retardation; girls tended to be more mature than boys; boys were more likely to drop out of school than girls; environment was of great importance in the first few years of life; rural children developed better perceptual discrimination than urban children, performance was influenced by anxiety, race, and ethnic origin attitudes differed according to age; and athletic skill was considered a status symbol.

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SELECTED ANNOTATED BIBLIOGRAPHY OF RESEARCH RELEVANT TO EDUCATION AND CULTURAL DEPRIVATION

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Susan B. Silverman
University of Chicago

J0491

The attached bibliography is intended to furnish a brief summary of some of the research which seemed to us to be most directly relevant to the problems of education and cultural deprivation. We have concentrated on empirical papers in this collection, thus, many important theoretical papers and essays as well as materials dealing with school programs have not been given thorough representation.

For each reference we have indicated

a. the major question, problem or hypothesis
b. the methods, sampling, and design
c. the major findings and conclusions

Each reference has been classified according to the general categories which are most heavily emphasized in the work. These are indicated by the letters A to I in the upper-right corner. The first letter indicates what we believe to be completely independent. Classifications are as follows:

A. Home Environment
B. Siblings and Peer Group
C. Introduction to School
D. School Programs and Personnel
E. Language and Cognition
F. Personality and Learning
G. Socialization and Motivation
H. Intelligence, Aptitudes, and Abilities
I. School Achievement

It is hoped that the reader will be able to make use of this bibliography in the work of the Research Conference. It should be especially helpful in our attempt to document the major generalizations about education and cultural deprivation which we hope to issue in the form of a report. It is also likely that the bibliography will be of help in determining major areas of research for the future.

Undoubtedly this collection has omitted some critical references, and it is hoped that participants will suggest additional references which should be included in a revised bibliography. It is also hoped that the participants will call our attention to references for which the summary is inadequate or erroneous. Any other suggestions for revision will be appreciated.

Please bring your copy of this bibliography with you to the Research Conference.

1. Abrahamson, Stephen, April, 1952 I
Our Status System and Scholastic Rewards.
Journal of Educational Sociology, XXV, 441-450.

PROBLEM: To investigate the relationship between social class status and the scholastic rewards and punishments received by students in high school.

METHOD: Questionnaires were administered to groups of children in two urban, two suburban, and three semirural areas.

CONCLUSIONS: Findings showed that: (1) middle-class students received a disproportionate share of the high grades; (2) most class and school offices were filled by middle-class students; (3) middle-class students engaged in more extracurricular activities; (4) no lower-class students ever received the American Legion Award. On the basis of the above findings, the author concludes that, within our status system, more rewards and fewer punishments go the higher classes. (Gottlieb and Reeves, 1963)

2. Ausubel, D. P., 1963. E, I, G, D
How reversible are the cognitive and motivational effects of cultural deprivation?
Implications for teaching the culturally deprived child.
Paper read at a conference on the teaching of the culturally deprived child, Buffalo, N. Y. March 28-30.

The author examines the problem of reversibility of the effects of cultural deprivation on verbal and abstract intelligence and on the development of intrinsic and extrinsic motivations for academic achievement.

He suggests that the "critical periods" hypothesis which holds that if the organism is deprived of necessary stimulation when maximally susceptible to it, some degree of permanent retardation is inevitable, is difficult to extrapolate to human cognitive development. It has been based on perceptual, motor, and social traits in infrahuman species. In the human, particularly after year 1, rate of maturation is relatively slow and further optimal periods for intellectual growth have not been demonstrated. Rather, older children and adults seem to have definite advantage in learning new material over young children. The possible disadvantage of postponing learnings "inheres rather in loss of precious years of opportunity when reasonably economical learning could have occurred cf attempted, but did not.... The individual, in comparison to equally endowed peers, incurs a learning deficit which limits his current and future rate of intellectual development."

Author suggests that possible irreversibility in cognitive development may result from the "cumulative nature of intellectual deficit." Child who has a deficit in growth is less able to profit developmentally from new levels of environmental stimulation." "New growth always proceeds from the existing phenotype, that is, from already actualized capacity, rather than from the potentialities inherent in the genotype." Furthermore, intellectual development becomes increasingly differentiated with age, leaving those who are deficient at one less differentiated level less able to profit from stimulation which helps develop differentiation.

He suggests that present IQ tests do measure "functional or operating capacity at a given point of development" rather than innate potential per se and are fair in this respect. They are unfair to culturally deprived in that those children have fewer test-taking skills, are less responsive to speed pressure, less highly motivated, and less familiar with specific vocabulary. However, even when these errors are eliminated substantial social class differences still remain.

Due to language retardation in culturally deprived, which has been documented by Deutsch, children experience most difficuluty in transition from concrete to abstract mode of thought, a transition which is necessary in the junior high school years.

Implications for education:

1. Prevention· preschool enrichment emphasising perceptual discrimination and language development.
2. Amelioration: (a) use of more concrete-empirical props in teaching in order to facilitate transfer to abstract. (b) revision of language arts teaching to emphasize mastery in principal syntactical forms in written and oral, language, rather than emphasis on grammatical forms.
3. Any teaching strategy for these children should consider: (a) state of readiness, (b) mastery of all on going learning before new tasks are introduced, (c) use of structured learning materials optimally organized to facilitate efficient sequential learning.
4. Intrinsic motivation for learning may be most effectively developed by focus on the cognitive, relying on motivation developed retroactively from achievement.

3. Ausubel, D. P. & Pearl Ausubel, 1963 F, A
"Ego development among segregated Negro children"
In Passow, A.H. (ed.), Education in Depressed Areas, New York: T.C. Columbia University, 109-141.

"Ego development refers to the orderly series of changes in an individual's self-concept, self-attitudes, motives, aspirations, sources of self-esteem, and key personality traits affecting the realization of his aspirations as he advances in a particular cultural setting."

Summary and conclusions based on review of the literature: The ego development of segregated Negro children in the U.S. manifests various distinctive properties, both because Negroes generally occupy the lowest stratum of the lower-class sub-culture, and because they possess an inferior caste status in American society. Their inferior caste position is marked by an unstable and matriarchal type of family structure, by restricted opportunities for acquiring education, vocational, and social status, by varying degrees of segregation from the dominant white majority, and by a culturally fixed devaluation of their dignity as human beings. The consequences of this regrettable state of affairs for Negro children's self-esteem and self-confidence, for their educational and vocational aspirations, and for their character structure, interpersonal relations, and personality adjustment, constitute the characteristic features of their ego development.

Beginning in the pre-school period, the Negro child gradually learns to appreciate the negative implications of dark skin color for social status and personal worth. Hence he resists identifying with his own racial group and shows definite preference for white dolls and playmates. This reluctance to acknowledge his racial membership not only results in ego deflation, but also makes it difficult to identify with his parents and to obtain from such identification the derived status that universally constitutes the principal basis for self-esteem during childhood. Much of the derived status that white children obtain from their parents is made available to the Negro child by virtue of his membership in an unsupervised peer group, which accordingly performs many of the socializing functions of the white-middle-class home. This is especially true for the Negro boy who often has no adult male with whom to identify in the frequently fatherless Negro family, and who finds maleness deprecated in his matriarchal and authoritarian home. Early experience in fending for himself results in precocious social maturity, independence, and emancipation from the home.

During pre-adolescence and adolescence, segregated Negro children characteristically develop low aspirations for academic and vocational achievement. These low aspirations reflect existing social class and ethnic values, the absence of suitable emulatory modes, marked educational retardation, restricted vocational opportunities, lack of parental and peer group support, and the cultural impoverishment of the Negro home. Because of loyalty to parents and rejection by the dominant white group, Negro adolescents develop ambivalent feelings toward middle-class achievement values and the personality traits necessary for their implementation.

Girls tend to develop a more mature ego structure than boys probably because of their favored position in the home.

4. Bartlett, Claude J., and John E. Norrocks, September, 1958 F, A
A Study of the Needs Status of Adolescents from Broken Homes.
Journal of Genetic Psychology, XCIII, 153-159.

PROBLEM: Two hypotheses were tested to determine the needs of adolescents from homes where one parent was deceased in comparison with the needs of adolescents from homes where both parents were living. (1) Adolescents from broken homes will reflect a greater need for affection; and (2) adolescents from broken homes will tend to form dependent relationships more often than adolescents from unbroken families.

METHOD: An experimental form of the Horrocks-Lucas Needs Questionnaire was administered to a total of 88 subjects. Half of the adolescents were from broken homes, the remaining 44 were from families where both parents were living.

CONCLUSIONS: The first hypothesis was supported by the finding that adolescents from broken homes tended to seek affection in attention from the opposite sex. The second hypothesis was neither supported nor rejected. (Gottlieb and Reeves, 1963)

5. Battle, Esther S. and J. B. Rotter, 1963. F
Children's feeling of personal control as related to social class and ethnic group.
J. Personal., 31, 482-490.

A study of one personality variable: external versus internal control--"This construct distributes individuals according to the degree to which they accept personal responsibility for what happens to them, in contrast to the attribution of responsibility outside their control."

Summary: A generalized expectancy for internal vs. external control of reinforcement was examined in 80 Negro and white school children (grades 6 and 8). To assess this characteristic, a newly developed cartoon test was given to all children and a questionnaire scale developed earlier by Bailer was given to half the children. The relationship of test scores to sex, age, social class, ethnic group, and behavior on a line-matching task was investigated.

Findings:

1. The interaction of social class and ethnic group was highly related to internal-external control attitudes. Lower-class Negroes were significantly more external than middle-class Negroes or whites. Middle-class children, in general, were significantly more internal than lower-class children.
2. Lower-class Negroes with high IQs were more external than middle-class whites with lower IQs. Caution must be exercised in interpreting this triple interaction because of the small N involved. The findings suggest, however, that brighter lower-class Negroes may develop extreme external attitudes as a defense reaction to perceived reduced choices for cultural or material rewards.
3. Sex was not a determiner for I-E scores.

4. On a line matching task higher children's IE scores were significantly associated with lower mean expectancy for success but not significantly associated with unusual shifts or trials to extinction.
5. The Bailer questionnaire of internal-external control expectancies correlated-.42 with the projective measure used. The Bailer scale was significantly related to social class.
6. For the 40 Ss who had taken the Bailer scale, a significant predicted relationship was found between test scores and number of unusual shifts on the line-matching tasks; but not with mean expectancy or trials to extinction.

6. Baynham, Dorsey, April 1963. D
The great cities project.
National Education Association Journal, -52, 4, 17-20.

The author of this article noted five factors common to all project programs in the Great Cities project. These were:

(1) Culturally deprived students are recognized as usually poor in communication skills and this inability caused failure in other subjects.
(2) The schools involved demonstrate a willingness to experiment with a broad range of teaching materials such as film strips, records, and television, and with administrative approaches such as team teaching and flexible programming.
(3) The schools involved demonstrated strenuous efforts to search out and use community help such as various public health and welfare services or private philanthropic organizations and business and industry.
(4) "Preparation both in teaching skills and in attitudes of teachers involved in the great city programs and, happily, the concern, devotion and enthusiasm which ordinarily result from that involvement" are evident.
(5) The schools involved are utilizing lay personnel to build a bridge of interpretation between school and community.

7. Becker, Howard B., April, 1952. D
Social-Class Variations in the Teacher-Pupil Relationship.
Journal of Educational Sociology, XXV, 451-465.

PROBLEM: To describe the reactions of public school teachers to sociocultural differences in the student body.

METHOD: The study is a descriptive analysis of 60 interviews with teachers in the Chicago public school system.

CONCLUSIONS: Class differences in teachers reactions were most noticeable in the areas of teaching procedures, discipline, and moral acceptability. The lower-class students fail to live up to the teachers' concept of the ideal pupil and thereby do not compare favorably with the upper classes. The lower-class pupils are also more difficult to control and discipline and often display behavior that is morally unacceptable to the teacher. (Gottlieb and Reeves, 1963)

8. Bernstein, B., 1962. E, A
Linguistic codes, hesitation phenomena and intelligence.
Language and Speech, 5 (1), 31-46.

"Two linguistic codes have been proposed, elaborated and restricted. These codes are regarded as functions of different social structures. They are considered to entail qualitatively different verbal planning orientations which control different modes of self-regulation and levels of cognitive behavior. Social class differences in the use of these codes were postulated and the hesitation Phenomena associated with them predicted.

Speech samples were obtained and the hesitation phenomena analyzed from a discussion situation involving small groups of middle-class and working-class subjects with varying IQ profiles.

Major results

(1) Overall social class differences were found. The working-class subjects used a longer mean phrase length, spent less time pausing and used a shorter word length.
(2) Holding non-verbal intelligence constant, social class differences were found in the same direction.
(3) Holding verbal and non-verbal intelligence constant, social class differences were again found in the same direction, but not for word length.
(4) Within the middle-class group, the sub-group with superior verbal intelligence used a longer mean phrase length, a faster rate of articulation and a longer word length.
(5) Within the working-class group, the sub-group with the average IQ profile spent less time pausing.

The major predictions were confirmed. The results were considered supporting evidence for the two codes and the different verbal planning orientations which are entailed."

9. Bernstein, B., 1962. E, A
Social class, linguistic codes and grammatical elements.
Language and Speech, 5, 221-.

"In a previous paper two general types of linguistic codes, elaborated and restricted were proposed. These codes were regarded as functions of different forms of social relationships. The codes were thought to entail qualitatively different verbal planning orientations which control different modes of self-regulation and levels of cognitive behavior. Social class differences in the use of these codes were expected."

"Speech samples were obtained and the hesitation phenomena analyzed, from a discussion situation involving small groups of middle and working class subjects with varying IQ profiles. It was found that the middle-class groups used a shorter phrase length and a longer pause interval than the working-class group. These differences in the hesitation phenomena were sharper when working-class and middle-class groups, matched for intelligence on a group verbal and non-verbal test, were compared."

"It was considered that the members of the two class groups were oriented to qualitatively different levels of verbal planning which control lexicon and structural selections. The working-class groups were thought to be making selections from a lower level of the linguistic hierarchy; whilst the middle-class subjects irrespective of verbal IQ were oriented to making selections from a higher level of the hierarchy."

10. Bledsoe, Joseph C., September, 1959. G, I
An Investigation of Six Correlates of Student Withdrawal from High School.
Journal of Educational Research, LIII, 3-6.

PROBLEM: To investigate six factors related to school drop-outs.

METHOD: Case histories were secured from 247 students in a Georgia town of 20,000. These students had dropped out of school in the eighth, ninth, and tenth grades.

CONCLUSIONS. There are three main factors behind school withdrawal: low intelligence, dissatisfaction with the school program, and economic reasons. The findings suggest that boys may be more likely than girls to drop out of school and that the level of parent education and the occupation of the parent are closely related to the student's level of aspiration. (Gottlieb and Reeves, 1963)

11. Bloom, B. S., 1964. A, H, I, F
Stability and change in human characteristics.
New York: Wiley and Sons.

This book examines and interprets data from about 1000 longitudinal studies on the shaping of human characteristics from infancy to adulthood. It includes data on physical characteristics, intelligence, achievement data, interests, attitudes, and personality. The research findings are related to three propositions:

1. The relation between parallel measurements over time is a function of the levels of development represented at the different times.
2. Change measurements are generally unrelated in initial measurements but they are highly related to the relevant environmental conditions in which individuals have lived during the change period.

3. Variations in the environment have greatest quantitative effect on a characteristic at its most rapid period of change and least effect on the characteristic during the least rapid period of change.

In general, the findings reveal the tremendous importance of the first few years of life for all that follows. Change in many characteristics becomes more and more difficult with increasing age and only the most powerful environmental conditions are likely to produce significant changes at the later stages of life.

12. Boger, J. H., 1952. H, I, D, E
An experimental study of the effects of perceptual training on Group IQ scores of elementary pupils in rural ungraded schools.
J. Educ. Research, 46, 43-53.

PURPOSE: To investigate the scores of rural school children, white and Negro, on widely used group IQ tests, and to provide them with stimulating visual materials involving reasoning ability of a perceptual nature in order to determine whether or not such an increment would enhance performance on subsequent group IQ tests.

METHOD: The Otis Quick-Scoring Mental Ability Test, Alpha, and the California Test of Mental Maturity were given to controls and experimental Ss before the training period for the latter was begun (Jan.), in May of the same year after training and the following October. Each group of Ss was an intact classroom group under a single teacher in elementary schools of a Virginia county.

EXPERIMENTAL Ss: 25 white and 29 Negro children in grades 1-4; control Ss: 22 Negro and 28 white, grades 1-3. The total group of rural children scored lower than average on the group IQ tests.

The purposes of the 5 month training period were to provide practice in following directions, noting details, perceiving spatial relationships, detecting likeness and difference in pictorial and geometric patterns, and development of increased coordination of eye and hand movements. The practice materials used by the experimental groups consisted of pictorial and geometric designs and puzzles, jigsaw puzzles, and wood puzzles.

RESULTS: The training received by the Expl. gps. caused a significant increase in their total IQ scores and non-language scores on the CTMM (Otis Verbal, white expl. mean gain of 3.2-IQ points as opposed to white control gain of 3.0. Negro expl. gain, 6.9; Negro controls gain .2) The training received by the Negro expl. gp. brought about a significant increase in total IQ scores, Verbal IQ and Non-verbal IQ on the Otis. Both whites and Negroes made great gains in Spatial Relationships as tested by the CTMM, with the Negroes making even greater gains in Logical Reasoning. Gains were maintained as of the October testing, 5 months after training.

CONCLUSION: The study suggested that training in visual perception may enable rural pupils to react more effectively in situations requiring perceptual discrimination (e.g. reading, spelling, and arithmetic) and may cause an increase in IQ scores. "The extent of improvement as a result of training indicates 1) that scores from IQ tests often give an estimate of mental ability which is an injustice to these pupils so far as actual ability is concerned, and 2) that perceptual training remedies some of the handicaps which influence performances of rural children on group IQ tests. It would appear that rural elementary school children are capable of responding to a more challenging school program than IQ scores derived from group intelligence tests frequently seem to justify."

13. Brazziel, W. F. and Mary Terrell, 1962. C, E
An experiment in the development of readiness in a culturally disadvantaged group of first grade children.
Journal of Negro Educ., 31, 4-7.

A six week readiness program for 26 Negro first grade children included parent meetings once a week, 30 minutes of educational TV watched in the home, and Scott Foresman Readiness Series. Significant differences in Metropolitan Readiness Test at end of 6 weeks when compared with three control classes in the same school showed experimental group at 50th percentile on readiness while others were around the 15th. IQ after seven months was 106.5 while general expectation for group is 90.

14. Broen, W. E., Jr., December 1959. H, I
Anxiety, intelligence, and achievement.
Psych. Reports, 5, 701-704.

PURPOSE: To study the relation of anxiety to intelligence test performance and achievement in order to evaluate the utility of procedures designed to suppress testee anxiety in intelligence testing situations.

METHOD: Anxiety scores (from Childrens Test Anxiety Scale) of 80 5th grade boys were correlated with 10 achievement measures in the SRA series and with the Lorge-Thorndike scores. Three transformations were made to test the significance of differences between anxiety-IQ and anxiety achievement correlations. A second sample consisted of 37 pairs of high and low anxious boys matched for Lorge-Thorndike scores and testing SRA score differences. A similar relationship between anxiety and intelligence test performance, and anxiety and current achievement was found for both samples. Comparison of the achievement of the high and low anxious groups for the year after initial testing also showed no significant differences.

CONCLUSION: Anxiety is a variable which, because it has similar effects on intelligence test performance and achievement, aids in the prediction of achievement, i.e., adds to the accuracy of achievement prediction. Thus, procedures for suppressing anxiety during intelligence testing are seen as decreasing the relationship between intell. test performance and school achievement.

15. Bronfenbrenner, U., 1961. A, F, G
The changing American child - a speculative analysis.
Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 7, 2, 73-84.

He attempts to summarize the effects on children of the changing patterns of child rearing. Some of the generalizations he draws from the literature are the following:

Changing American Parent (over the last 26 years)

1) Greater permissiveness and freer expression of affection, reasoning, guilt
2) Increased reliance on psychological techniques of discipline
3) A narrowing of the gap between social classes in patterns of child rearing

Psychological Techniques of Discipline

4) "Love oriented" psychological techniques are very powerful in bringing about desired behavior in child
5) Girls are more likely to be subjected to "love oriented" discipline than boys
6) First children are more exposed to psychological techniques and tend to become more anxious and dependent than later children, especially boys who become more aggressive and self-confident.
7) Girls are susceptible to the detrimental influences of over-protection while boys are susceptible to the effects of insufficient parental discipline and support

Class Differences

8) Overprotection for girls is a greater danger in the lower class families than in middle-class families
9) Boys are in greater danger of inadequate discipline in lower-middle than in upper-middle class families
10) In higher socio-economic levels, girls excell boys in responsibility and social acceptance
11) In lower-middle class, boys excell girls in leadership, level of aspiration, and competitiveness.

Family Structure

12) Mothers primarily use love oriented techniques of discipline (at each social level) while fathers use direct methods at lower levels and love oriented techniques at higher social levels.
13) Father tends to use love oriented techniques with girls and direct methods with boys
14) Boys tend to be more responsible when father is principal disciplinarian and girls are more dependable when mother is the major authority figure.
15) Boys from father-absent homes tend to be dependent. Absence of a father is especially critical for male children.

Looking Forward

16) Emphasis on intellectual achievement is becoming the dominant force in redirecting aims and methods of child rearing in the U.S. (He sees this leading to aggressive, tense, domineering and cruel characteristics.)

16. Carroll, J. B., 1963. F, I, H, G
A model of school learning.
Teachers College Record, 64 (6), 723-733.

Mr. Carroll presents a theoretical learning model based on five primary variables.

1) Aptitude-the amount of time needed to learn the task under optimal learning conditions
2) Ability to understand instruction.
3) Perseverance - the amount of time the learner is willing to engage actively in learning.
4) Opportunity - time allowed for learning
5) The quality of instruction - a measure of the degree to which instruction is presented so that it will not require additional time for mastery beyond that required in view of aptitude.

These may be combined in a formula in which degree of learning is a function of time actually spent divided by time needed. Time spent is the smallest value of opportunity, perseverance, or aptitude.

The model is then applied in a discussion of under and overachievement, and to show implications for further research in the prediction of all five quantities above plus total degree of learning.

17. Carroll, Rebecca E., 1945. G
Relation of Social Environment to the Moral Ideology and the Personal Aspirations of Negro Boys and Girls.
School Review, LIII, 30-38.

PROBLEM: The purposes of this study were to determine the relation of the socio-economic status of boys and girls in a Negro community: (1) to their conception of what is right or wrong; (2) to their ideas of the person they would most like to resemble.

METHOD: 300 Negro adolescents were divided into two groups (lower and middle classes). The median IQ for the middle-class group was 105, while that for the lower-class group was 95. The median age for each group was 13. Each individual wrote an essay on "The Person I Would Most Like to Be Like" and essay answers on their ideas on lying, cheating, and stealing.

CONCLUSIONS: (1) middle-class adolescents tended to choose "successful" adults while the lower-class adolescents preferred the "glamorous" adults; (2) the ideal self of the middle-class adolescents was characterized by moral and intellectual qualities, but the lower-class ideal self reflected personal beauty and fame; (3) in this sample, the middle-class adolescents seemed to have a higher degree of moral development than the lower-class individuals. In general, this study supported the theory that the environment has a strong effect on the formation of moral and social values in adolescents. (Gottlieb and Reeves, 1963)

18. Casler, L., 1961. A
Maternal deprivation: a critical review of the literature.
Society Res. Child, Devel. Monograph, 26 (2).

The author summarizes the main findings from many studies on maternal deprivation, drawing on literature which represents the institutional approach, the cultural approach, animal experimentation, and neuroanatomical hypotheses. He concludes:

1. Emotional, physical, and intellectual malfunctioning is known to occur with frequency among children in many institutions.
2. Some authors have alleged that this malfunctioning is attributable to the deprivation of maternal love.
3. It is more likely, however, that deprivation of maternal love can have ill effects only after specific affective responsiveness has been achieved by the child (usually at about the age of six months). Ill effects found in children maternally deprived before this age probably have some other cause.
4. Evidence is accumulating, both on the human and animal level, that this "other cause" is perceptual deprivation--the absolute or relative absence of tactile, vestibular, and other forms of stimulation.
5. Those forms of social stimulation necessary for proper language development, etc., can be provided within an institutional setting.
6. Recent neuranatomical findings, especially those concerning the reticular formation, help to explain why perceptual stimulation is so important for normal development.

19. Centers, Richard, 1950. F, G
Social Class Identification of American Youth.
Journal of Personality, SVIII, 290-302.

PROBLEM: To ascertain the substance and scope of the feelings of adolescents on class membership.

METHOD: Data were gathered from questionnaires administered to groups of adolescents.

CONCLUSIONS: (1) Adolescents are class conscious and their patterns closely resemble those of adults in similar occupational stratification, with the major difference being that adolescents place themselves more toward the upper-middle classes than do adults; (2) maturity is significantly related to self-placement on the class scale; (3) girls seem to classify themselves higher on the class scale than do boys of the same strata; (4) adolescents who are children of manual workers are not significantly influenced by their parents' union membership, but the opposite is true of the children of white collar workers. (Gottlieb and Reeves, 1963)

20. Clark, K. B. and M. K. Clark, 1939.
The development of consciousness of self and the emergence of racial identification in Negro pre-school children.
J. Soc. Psychol., 10, 591-599.

PROBLEM: The present study is an attempt to investigate early levels in the development of consciousness of self in Negro pre-school children with special reference to emergent race consciousness.

SUBJECT AND TECHNIQUE: A modification of the Horowitz Picture technique was used. The subjects were 150 Negro children in segregated Washington, D.C., nursery school. 75 males, and 75 females. Fifty of the children were 3 years of age, 50 were four years of age, and 50 were 5 years of age.

FINDINGS: On the entire series of pictures the total group of 150 Negro children made more choices of the colored boy...There is a consistent increase in the differences between choices of colored and white boys with age in favor of colored boys. The absolute number of choices of colored boy increases from the 3 year level (41.2 percent) to the 4 year level (55.4 percent) and slightly again at the 5 year level (56.0 percent).

The choices of the boys show significant trends whereas those of the girls seem to approximate chance. This can be best understood if it is remembered that the boys were making identifications of themselves while the girls were identifying brothers, cousins, and in a few instances, a boy playmate.

CONCLUSION: The fact that the sharpest increase in identifications with the colored boy occurred between the three-and four-year level and failed to increase significantly at the five-year level suggests that either this picture technique is not as sensitive when used with five-year olds as when used with three and four-year olds, or that a plateau in the development of this function occurs between the ages of four and five, or that the five-year olds have reached a stage in self-awareness which approaches a concept of self in terms of a concrete intrinsic self, less capable of abstractions or external representations.

21. Clarke, A. D. B. and A. M. Clarke, 1953. A, H
How constant is the I.Q.?
Lancet, ii, 877-880.

Drawing on studies which dispel the notion that IQ is constant over long periods of time, the authors attempted to extend this finding to mental defectiveness.

Main experiment entailed retesting of 59 adolescent and adult subjects after an average of 27 months had elapsed since first testing with Wechsler test. All subjects were certified mental defectives at first testing.

Found 27 patients had increased scores by 8 points or more, 17 by 10 points or more, and 7 by 15 points or more (maximum was 25). Other 32 patients showed small positive or negative increment.

An attempted explanation of these data led to investigation of the home environments of the patients. Criteria of adverse home conditions were formulated, including court intervention, parental attitude antagonistic to the child, home dirty and neglected, gross poverty, deficiency diseases, and others. 59 case histories were examined for evidence of adverse conditions (any 2 of list). 25 cases found to fit "very bad homes", others (34) no evidence of such conditions.

Differences between IQ gains of group from very adverse early environment (mean +9.7) and remainder (mean +4.1) significant as .01. Average age of entire population 24 years (range 14-50), initial IQ range 35-98 with mean of 66.2. Retest range was 49-97 with mean of 72.7.

"It is consistent with this finding to suggest that the environment which is really antagonistic toward the child retards mental development for many years. Later, however, after removal from such conditions this retardation begins to fade, and IQ increments occur, often at ages when mental growth is commonly assumed to have ceased."

A further validation of hypothesis was carried out on another group of defectives - 6 from adverse home conditions, 5 not. Patients had been tested 2 years earlier and were retested. Adverse group showed increment +8.7 while non-adverse group +0.6.

"The results show clearly that intellectual retardation among such deprived people as have been studied here is not necessarily a permanent and irreversible condition."

22. Coleman, H. A., 1940 I, H, D, A
The relationship of socio-economic status to the performance of junior high school students.
Journal of Experimental Education, 9, 61-63.

A survey type of study of the relationships between socio-economic status and intelligence, school achievement, and participation in school activities.

Studied a national sample of 4,784 junior high school students. Measured socio-economic status by means of the Sims Socio-Economic score card. Divided the students into three status groups and a fourth group whose families were on relief. Some findings:

1) Evidence of drop-out by 9th grade from low economic group.
2) Major differences in age of children within a grade, with younger children coming from high groups.
3) Intelligence scores differences are between 7 and 14 IQ points among status groups.
4) Reading score differences are between 5 and 11 months on grade norms.
5) Differences in geography and history tests consistently favor high group.
6) Problem solving scores consistently favor high group.
7) Intellectual hobbies and participation in extra-curricular activities are greater for high group.
8) A personal inventory shows greater maladjustment in the low group but little difference between the two high socio-economic groups.
9) The group on Relief are very similar on all measures to the low status group.

CONCLUSION: The schools' extra-curricular program seems to be organized to fit the upper socio-economic group. The school needs to adapt its curricular and extra-curricular offerings to children from different socio-economic groups.

23. Coleman, James S., January, 1960.
The Adolescent Subculture and Academic Achievement.
American Journal of Sociology, LXV, 337-347.

PROBLEM: This study is an examination of the status systems in several high schools. It examines the status systems, the effects of these status systems, and the possible source of these systems.

METHOD: The sample consists of 10 Midwest high schools, 5 in small towns, 1 in a working-class suburb, 1 in a well-to-do suburb, and 3 in cities of varying sizes. All but one, a Catholic boys' school, are coeducational and public. In addition to this group, two upper-middle class schools were included to answer certain questions rising from the analysis of the original group. Data were gathered from school grade records, IQ test results, and questionnaires on how the student would most like to be remembered in his school and what was required for entrance into the "leading crowd."

CONCLUSIONS: In all the schools, students wanted to be remembered not as a brilliant student, but rather as a star athlete, leader in activities, or most popular. The explanation of this lies in the values of the adolescents. In this case, the prestige and status were awarded in nonacademic areas. In the explanation of the grade records and IQ scores, the author supports the notion that in a high-school social system which does not reward scholastic achievement to those who are considered as "intellectuals" will, in fact, not be the students who have the most ability. The most able students will seek status in other, more profitable, areas. The author suggests that the lack of status associated with scholastic achievement may be related to the emphasis on interscholastic athletics and suggests that interscholastic competition in scholastic areas will affect the status system. (Gottlieb and Reeves, 1963)

24. Dave, R. H., 1963. I, A
The identification and measurement of environmental process variables that are related to educational achievement.
Ph.D. Dissertation, University of Chicago.

He hypothesized on the basis of the literature that the home environment relevant to educational achievement might be studied in terms of six variables: 1. Achievement Press, 2. Language models in the home, 3. Academic guidance provided in the home, 4. Stimulation provided in the home to explore various aspects of the larger environment, 5. The intellectual interests and activity in the home, and 6. The work habits emphasized in the home. Sixty mothers were interviewed and the ratings on their responses were related to the scores of their children on a battery of achievement tests taken at the end of the fourth grade of school.

The overall index of the home environment had a correlation of +.80 with the total score on the entire achievement battery. The correlations between the home environment and parts of the achievement test are highest with the tests of word knowledge and reading and they are lowest with spelling and arithmetic computation. This suggests that the home has the greatest influence on the language development of the child and the least influence on skills primarily taught in the school.

The correlation of +.80 may be contrasted with the much lower correlations (usually less than .50) between school achievement and other indices of the home environment such as socio-economic status, education of parents, occupational status, or social class. If supported by further research, these techniques may enable the school to analyze the home environment and to determine the best strategy for the school and the home to provide the environmental conditions necessary for school achievement. This approach also makes it clear that parents with relatively low levels of education or occupational status can provide very stimulating home environments for educational achievement. It is what the parents do in the home rather than their status characteristics which are the powerful determiners.

25. Davidson, Helen H., F. Riessman, and Edna Meyers, June 1962. A,F,G,D
Personality characteristics attributed to the worker.
Journal of Social Psychology, 57, 155-160.

An analysis of the personality characteristics attributed to various occupational groups. It was the hypothesis of this study that persons in higher occupational categories would be rated more positively in personality characteristics than persons in the lower occupational groups. Asch's technique for obtaining impressions of personality was adapted to test the hypothesis.

241 undergraduate students -- male and female ranging in age from about 17 to 20 years of age. In terms of social class the subjects ranged from lower to upper.

A checklist of 30 personality characteristics was used to determine the pictures (or images or stereotypes) in the minds of students with regard to selected occupational groups: factory owner, factory worker, assistant office manager, teacher, and physician. Prior to checking the list the students were asked to give a brief personality description of a hypothetical individual. They were then asked to rate the person they had just described on 30 Personality characteristics, indicating whether the characteristic was possessed "to a great extent", "to some extent", or "to no extent".

The groups differed significantly in 12 of the 30 characteristics. Positive characteristics were distributed about equally among the factory owner, assistant office manager, teacher, and physician. The worker emerged as having the lowest mean score for all these qualities. More negative characteristics were attributed to factory workers than to any of the other occupational groups. Among the 12 characteristics having statistical significance, only 2 indicated positive evaluation of the worker. Lowest mean scores were ascribed to the worker on the remaining 10 characteristics; these included, practical, thoughtful, serious, polite, confident, and intelligent.

It seems fairly clear that the Ss, many of whom are prospective teachers, psychologists, and social workers, have definite images of the lower class, which are for the most part decidedly unfavorable.

With regard to the school system the consequences that arise from acceptance of a negative image of the worker are serious. Many of the current difficulties of the educational system--poor discipline, insufficient academic motivation, inadequate reading ability--stem in part from the attitude of the teachers toward their pupils, the majority of whom are children of workers.

26. Davie, James S., 1953. A, D
Social class factors and school attendance.
Harvard Educational Review, 23, 175-185.

This is a study of the relationship between the position of the family in the social class structure and the educational pattern of its children.

Studied the records of all 16 and 17 year olds in New Haven. Classified the family on basis of area of residence and classified the child on type of educational institution he was attending (trade school, high school, private secondary school, etc.) Found high relationship between social class and non-attendance, trade school, private school, and (early entrance into) liberal arts college.

Interviewed a sample of families to find typical view of each class about education. Found that finances are very important in educational decisions for some classes. In addition, custom (the tendency to educate children at equal or better level than the parents), and the purpose or value of education for each group were the important variables in their educational decisions.

He concludes that the pattern of schooling is partially determined by the mere fact of birth into a particular family with a particular social class status. A considerable portion of the individual's life as an adult is influenced in his early years. The school appears to be perpetuating the status of some children and is serving as a channel of upward mobility for others. He concludes that this study and others bring into question the myth that U. S. is a classless society and that there is equal educational opportunity for all.

27. Davis, Allison, 1944. G
Socialization and the Adolescent Personality.
Forty-Third Yearbook of the National Society for the Study of Education, Part 1, 198-216.

COMMENTS: This author contends that the successful socialization of the adolescent depends on the amount of socialized anxiety that his society has been able to place in him. Considering the different social classes in the United States, he points out that the differences in the expected end-products of socialization within the lower and middle classes help maintain divergent cultures. Since the social reality of individuals differs between classes, the reactions of these individuals from different classes will be reactions to different situations, and a socialized lower-class boy may be regarded as totally unsocialized by the middle class. (Gottlieb and Reeves, 1963)

28. Deutsch, M., 1963. H, A, E, F, G
The disadvantaged child and the learning process.
In Passow, A. H. (ed.), Education in Depressed Areas, New York: T. C. Columbia University, 163-180.

"The thesis here is that the lower-class child enters the school situation so poorly prepared to produce what the school demands that initial failures are almost inevitable, and the school experience becomes negatively rather than positively reinforced...."

Main factors:

1. lack of variety of stimulation in the home

   a. visual - few objects in the home to help development of visual discrimination skills and lack of manipulable objects lessening tactile development.
   b. auditory - much noise in the environment but little direct communication and feedback -- inattention, "drowning out noise" may result - thus the home may foster skills of inattention.
   c. lack of expectation of reward for performance. Also, most tasks are "motoric, have a short-time span, and are more likely to relate to concrete objects or services for people."

2. Data indicate that class differences in perceptual abilities and general environmental orientation decrease with age, whereas language differences tend to increase. If language taken as prerequisite to concept formation and problem solving, then deficit is tremendous.

29. Deutsch, M. 1964. C, I, G
Early social environment: its influence on school adaptation.
In D. Schreiber (ed.), The school dropout.
Washington, D. C.: National Education Association

The emphasis of this article was on the preschool program as a means of accommodation between the school and child and his family. "The differences in the interaction among the child, the school, and the community, social class and ethnic membership of family, and sex of child."

The author concluded that differences in preparation for school are evident between middle-class and lower-class preschool children--the middle-class child more likely to be better prepared. The author stated that "for the lower class child, school failure may result in less personal upset or disturbance (than for the middle-class child) but may be more final, both in terms of recovery of adequate functioning in school and in terms of occupational choices."

The author hypothesized that "children who have had a preschool and kindergarten experience are more likely to cope appropriately with the kinds of things the school demands intellectually than are children who have not had this experience."

Preliminary data indicated that preschool, kindergarten or day-care experience, or a combination of these, was associated with higher group intelligence test scores; the scores are higher in the first grade, and the differential tends to be accentuated in a fifth grade population; the differential holds when social class is controlled.

30. Deutsch, M., 1964. E, A
The role of social class in language development and cognition.
Institute for Developmental Studies, New York. Mimeo.

This study examined language and cognitive variables on a sample of 292 white and Negro children in first and fifth grades. Relationships between SES, race, grade, and language variables were studied.

On the first grade level, lower SES is associated with poorer performance on all the IQ scores: Lorge-Thorndike, WISC Vocabulary, and Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test; the three scores on a Verbal Identification Test which have to do with a more abstract conceptualization of a visual stimulus; several rhyming, fluence, and verbal explanation scores on a Verbal fluency and a Concept Sorting Test; scores on a Claze Test; and a score reflecting general Environmental orientation. All correlations are signigicant at .01 level and .21 in magnitude or greater.

Also at first grade level there are only 2 additional variables which correlate with both SES and race. These are a verbalization score on the Concept Formation Test, and scores on the Wepman Test of Auditory Discrimination. In addition 6 variables relate to race but not SES; these are tasks which involve labeling behavior and knowledge of categories used in a Concept Sorting Task.

At the fifth grade level, IQ measures were found to relate to both SES and race. Still relating only to SES were 2 gestalt scores involving abstract Categorization of visual stimuli, and the scores on the Claze Test, which are associated with the manipulation and syntactical control of language. In addition, Form-Class Score on the Word Association Test, perceptual similarities score on a Concept Formation Test, and a score which reflects adequacy of categorizing visual stimuli are found to be related to SES in the fifth grade sample. A reading score is also associated with SES.

Whereas three variables were associated with race and SES at the first grade level, 12 variables were associated at the fifth grade level. These include the verbalization scores found at the first grade level, all the IQ scores, 2 verbal fluency measures, and the general orientation scale.

Also at the fifth grade level those measures associated with race but not with SES include the same three enumeration scores as were found for first graders, a word knowledge score, a sentence fluency score, and a latency score on a Word Association Test.

In sum, significant correlations with race were found in 8 comparisons for the first graders and in 18 for the fifth graders. The number of significant comparisons on SES for each grade level was 22. The functions underlying measures for which race is associated with poor performance, are found in areas of abstraction, verbalization, and experientially dependent enumeration. Further, the deficiency based on class and race is on the measures which reflect abstract and categorical use of language, as opposed to denotative and labeling usage.

The author concludes that the data support the cumulative deficit hypothesis which he has advanced. Although there are differences by SES and race at the 1st grade level, they become more marked, as the child goes through the early years of school. This phenomenon brings into question the adequacy of the educational institution, above and beyond the initial inadequate preparation of youngsters at school entrance.

31. Deutsch, M. and B. Brown, 1964. H, A
Social influences in Negro-white intelligence differences.
Journal of Social Issues, in press.

This is an investigation of some factors which influence the development of intellective functioning in children. Study based on 543 urban children stratified by race, social class, and grade level (first and fifth). Lorge-Thorndike.

Mean IQ significantly higher for white than Negro groups: Negro children at each SES level score lower than white children at same level and Negro-white differences increase at each higher SES level. (SES I: Negro=97; SES II: Negro=95, white=106; SES III: Negro=103, white=115). Further investigation shows a significantly lower score for those children who are in father-absent homes as compared to those children in intact families, using SES I and SES II only. This finding is more marked at the fifth grade level than at the first grade level, suggesting either a cumulative effect of father-absence or elements in the test at grade 5 which directly relate to father's role in the family (especially, "variety of activities in which family participates"). Effects of preschool experience were also examined for SES I and SES II. At the fifth grade level, those children who had attended were significantly higher than those who did not. At first grade the trend was evident, but statistical significance was not reached.

CONCLUSIONS: "Influence of race tends to become increasingly manifest and crucial as social class level increases." The finding that father-in-home and preschool experience children are higher at fifth grade "lends support to cumulative deficit hypothesis: that deprivational influences have a greater impact at later developmental stages than earlier ones."

32. Deutsch, M., J. Fishman, L. Kogan, R. North, and M. Whiteman, 1963 H
Guidelines for testing minority group children.
Society for the Psychological Study of Social Issues.

This is a summary of relevant considerations for professionals who utilize tests with minority group children. Reliability and validity are discussed, with particular reference to effects of using a typical population--dissimilar to those on which the test was standardized. Suggestions regarding interpretation of test results and test administration are outlined.

The use of tests as evaluative, prognostic, and diagnostic instruments which assist in assessing the goals of the educative process for a given child is seen as central.

33. Deutsch, E., Maliver, Alma, Brown, B., and Cherry, Estelle, 1964. E,H,A
Communication of information in the elementary school classroom.
Cooperative Research Project No. 908.

This is a study of language using 62 first grade children and 105 fifth grade children who vary in social class status and race. "The major findings of the Expressive and Receptive Language Studies may be summarized as follows:

1. While fifth grade children were found to be more productive on every language measure than first graders were, in general the proportion of any language score to the total output of speech was the same at both grade levels.
2. Three relatively discrete factors of interrelated language and/or demographic variables were obtained for each of the two age groups studies. These clusters indicated that: a) Many of the traditional language measures yielded overlapping results owing to their high degree of dependence on total speech productivity. b) Range of oral vocabulary tended to be relatively independent of other language measures and showed a positive relationship to social class level. While the higher social class group demonstrated a wider range of oral vocabulary than did the lower class group, this relationship was not maintained when differences in IQ score were controlled. c) The mean sentence length measure was related to social class level among younger children but not among the older group. Lower class first graders tended to use shorter sentences than a comparable age group of higher social class subjects. d) At the fifth grade level the race variable was related to intelligence, reading skill, and sound discrimination test scores but not to the language measures of this research. At the first grade level, the race variable related to neither the language nor the other test measures.
3. The content of children's speech obtained in a relatively unstructured adult-child testing situation was, in general, not significantly influenced by variables of sex, race, or social class level. Older children, who talked considerably more than the younger children did within a specified period of time, were found to cover a wider range of topics rather than to discuss any one topic more fully than did the younger group.
4. The results of this research, compared with those of previous studies, suggest that the appearance of sex differences in language performance is highly dependent on the age and social class level of the subject and on the specific linguistic skill measured.
5. Where social class or racial differences in language performance appeared, they were usually found in conjunction with differences in performance on the Lorge-Thorndike IQ tests. The language performance of fifth grade children, compared with that of first grade subjects, was somewhat more sensitive to the influence of social class and race variables."

34. Deutsche, Jean M., 1943. E
The Development of children's concepts of causal relation.
In Barker, R., Kounin, J., and Wright, H. (Eds.) Child Behavior and Development. New York: McGraw-Hill, 129-145.

This was an investigation of children's concepts of causal relations using the theoretical framework of Piaget as a basis. Ss were children in grades 3 to 8 from varying social classes, n = 732. Two types of instrument were employed. Form I consisted of presentation of experiments such as usually studied in physical science. Form II consisted of a series of questions dealing with natural phenomena, e.g., "What causes thunder?" Children's responses were rated on accuracy of response (explanations). Types of causality were also examined.

Main findings included:

1. Boys were higher than girls on Form I for all age groups.
2. There was no consistent difference in performance by social class.
3. Phenomenistic-type explanations decrease with age, from 37% at 8 years to 10% at 16 years.
4. Logical deduction-type explanations increase with age, from 11% at 8 years to 36% at 16 years.

35. Douglas, J. W. B., 1964. A, I, H
The home and the school.
London: McGibbon and Kee.

This is an extensive longitudinal study of a sample of all children born in the first week of March, 1946, in England. The 8,000 Ss included all children born into middle-class families, 1/4 of all those born in the working class, and all those born into agricultural families.

Data include information regarding birth, all doctors reports throughout childhood, reports of social worker and home visitors. Parents were questioned at intervals regarding aspirations and expectations for their children. Tests were individually administered to children at age 8. These included picture IQ, vocabulary tests, reading, and arithmetic. Sutdents retested at age 11 on arithmetic, reading, verbal IQ. School reports were utilized also.

On the basis of composite score of tests, class differences were found at both ages 8 and 11. However, maternal care measurements accounted for more of the variance at age 8 than did social class.

Parents' aspirations and expectations were found to be very high for all prior to age 6-7. These were assessed regarding desired attendance at grammar school and school leaving age. As children started primary school, expectations adjusted to reality of their school performance.

Book has much useful data regarding a variety of home and school influences and physiological development in relation to academic achievement and aptitudes.

36. Dreger, R. M. and K. Miller, 1960. H, F, I, G
Comparative psychological studies of Negroes and whites in the United States.
Psychol. Bull., 57, 361-402.

This is a critical review of published psychological studies during the period 1943-1958. He finds:

1) After equating for socio-economic variables, differences in psychomotor functions tend to disappear.
2) Intelligence differences are reported, although infant and young child comparisons suggest greater similarities in the early years. The reviewer points up many difficulties in these comparisons.
3) In temperament studies differences are found, but there is insufficient evidence to determine the basis for them. Overall, likenesses in psychodynamics appear more extensive than differences.
4) Religious values were ranked high by Negroes and white females.
5) In general, there is much similarity in the value systems of whites and Negroes. Differences in self-concepts are marked.
6) In the areas of psychological functioning most closely related to the sociological social class differences show up more clearly as basis for differentiation. Leadership, family life, child-rearing practices, fertility, and mate selection all seem to conform to social structure rather than to racial lines.
7) Mental illness is considerably more prevalent among Negroes than whites.
8) Educational achievement of Negroes relative to whites follow the pattern of intelligence test differences.

37. Eels, K., Fall, 1953. H, I, G, E
Some implications for school practice of the Chicago studies of cultural bias in intelligence tests.
Harvard Educational Review, Part II, 23, 284-297.

An attempt is made to clarify the basic nature of cultural bias in intelligence tests and its relation to the school's objectives. The cultural bias problem is that "most presently used intelligence tests .... are so constructed and so administered that scores on them are influenced by the cultural backgrounds of the children taking the test in such a way that children from certain kinds of cultural backgrounds receive scores that are not accurate reflections of their basic intelligence."

The question of bias is irrelevant if intelligence is defined as the ability to do school work, but then tests should be regarded as tests of scholastic aptitude to avoid misunderstanding and improper labelling and grouping. Intelligence is defined by Eels in terms of problem-solving ability as applied to problems which seem real and important to the individual and under conditions of maximum motivation. It is suggested that since culture-free tests are out of the question, culture-fair tests must be constructed which try to eliminate cultural material and which measure fairly the basic problem-solving ability of children from different kinds of cultural backgrounds. To be free of bias a test must be composed of items which deal with materials common to the various sub-cultures, common language, and must stimulate equal degrees of interest and motivation in the various subcultures in which it is used.

38. Empey, L. 1956. G, A
Social class and occupational aspiration: a comparison of absolute and relative measurements.
Amer. Sociological Rev., 21, 703-709.

This is a study of the extent to which the child is influenced in his aspirations by the status of his father. In studying a large sample of high school seniors (males) in the state of Washington, the author finds:

1) The absolute occupational status aspirations of male high school seniors relates to social class status.
2) Lower class senior boys aspire to and anticipate significantly higher occupational status than that of their fathers.
3) The preferred vs. anticipated occupations are as comparable for lower class boys as for higher class boys.

Lower class youth do aspire to "get ahead" but do not reach the absolute levels of higher status youth.

39. Fowler, William L., 1957. H, A
A comparative analysis of pupil performance on conventional and culture-controlled mental tests.
Fourteenth Yearbook of the National Council on Measurements in Education.
Princeton, N. J.: Educ. Test. Serv., 8-20.

PURPOSE: To contrast 3 conventional with 3 culture-controlled mental tests by comparing pupil test performance with sex, race, ethnic background, socio-economic status and teacher opinion of pupil intelligence.

Ss were 201 white American non-ethnics, 70 Negroes, and 84 Polish boys and girls, a total of 355 ten-year-old students from 18 schools. Eighteen teachers each rated a different group of Ss in the rank order of presumed intelligence. The tests administered to all were: California Short-Form Test of Mental Maturity, Detroit Alpha Intelligence Test, Henmon-Nelson Tests of Mental Ability, 2 IPAT Culture-Free Tests (Cattell) and the Davis-Eells Games.

The culture-controlled tests did not show differences between the sexes, but the girls were superior on the Henmon-Nelson and Detroit Alpha. Negro pupils generally scored lower than did either of the two white groups. Socio-economic status (as measured by the Warner Index of Status Characteristics) was found to be positively related to test performance, except for the Polish group and the Negro boys. The type of test used did not greatly alter the IQ obtained. For the Polish and the Negro boys, lower socio-economic status was associated with a better grade on the conventional and a poorer grade on the culture-controlled tests. It was also found that teacher opinion of pupil intelligence corresponded most closely with conventional tests.

40. Galler, E. H., 1951. A, G
Influence of social class on children's choices of occupations.
Elementary School Journal, 51, 439-445.

The purpose of this study was to determine the extent to which social class influences a child's choice of occupation and the reasons behind this choice.

Two groups of children, one of lower-class background and the other of upper-middle-class background, were compared. Social class was determined by father's occupation. Each group was further divided by sex and age (12-14 years; 10-11 years). The children's occupational aspirations were determined by analyzing student essays. The reasons for occupational choice in the essays were classified as (1) intrinsic, (2) self-esteem, (3) altruistic, (4) or extrinsic.

The author reported that an analysis of the data indicated that social class influences children's choices of occupation and the reasons for the choices, and is at least as important a factor as chronological age.

Findings as reported by the author included:

1) A significant difference on reasons of self-esteem was found in a comparison of younger girls with older, both in the lower class.
2) A significantly greater proportion of extrinsic reasons was given by the lower-class younger boys as compared with the upper-middle-class younger boys.
3) Also, in comparisons of younger girls of the two classes, significantly more extrinsic reasons were given by lower-class girls.
4) Every comparison of altruistic reasons given by the boys showed that a larger proportion of this class of reasons was given by the upper-middle-class boys than by the lower-class boys.
5) Significantly, more upper middle-class boys when compared to lower-class boys chose their father's occupation.

41. Gibboney, R. A., March 1959. I
Socio-economic status and achievement in social studies.
Elem. School J., 59, 340-346.

To investigate if close differences in achievement in social studies exist after intelligence is controlled, two groups of sixth grade pupils were studied: Group A was upper-middle class n=35, Group B was upper-lower-class n=40. Each group was instructed for a six-week unit by investigator.

On an achievement test written at the conclusion of the unit Group A performed significantly higher than Group B even after IQ controlled by covariance techniques.

42. Gill, L. J. and B. Spilka, 1962. A, D, G, I
Some non-intellectual correlates of academic achievement among Mexican-American secondary school students.
J. Educ. Psychol., 53, 144-149.

The purpose of this study was to determine personal and maternal correlates of academic achievement among Mexican-American secondary school students (Juniors and Seniors). Four groups (15 each) of achieving (70 percentile+ on GPA) and low achieving (30 percentile- on GPA) boys and girls were identified and equated on age, IQ, grade level, and courses taken. Employing standard personality and attitude questionnaire instruments, it was found that achievers were significantly less hostile, more socially mature, intellectually efficient, and conformed to rules. Achieving girls and underachieving boys appear to come from strong mother-dominated homes.

It is conjectured that restrictive and demanding maternal attitudes are perceived by the achieving girls as affectional concern. However, in this ethnic group where the woman's role is inferior to the male's position, the male teenager may reject maternal domination and use poor school performance as a weapon against his demanding mother.

The achieving student in this ethnic group has learned to conform to rules and regulations and to work under supervision. He does not appear to feel hostility toward authority figures such as teacher, because their demands have served as means for reward and personal satisfaction. Achieving girls apparently conform more than achieving boys or underachieving girls or boys.

43. Goff, R. M., 1954. F, G, I
Some educational implications of the influence of rejection on aspiration levels of minority group children.
J. Exp. Educ., 23, 179-183.

This study is concerned with the social pressure of rejection as it acts as a barrier to effective intellectual and social functioning of minority group (Negro) children.

120 children (60 boys and 60 girls), ages 6-8 and 12-14, high income and low income in North Carolina were interviewed. The questions centered on successes and failure in out-of-school competitive activities, ranking of self in relation to school academic performance, ambitions, and wishes.

Findings:

1) Lower income Negro children decreased in confidence in out-of-school activities with increase in age.
2) Feelings of inadequacy in school were most notable in lower income groups. This feeling of inadequacy increased with age for the boys but not with the girls.
3) Upper income Negro girls indicated rising assurance with age in both school and out-of-school activities.
4) Lower income girls hold least feelings of assurance on self-esteem and least security with reference to probable success in the future.
5) Lower income children believe money and lack of opportunity are major sources of interference with ambitions, while upper income children named ill health, bad luck, and death as possible interventions.
6) Wishes of children are more in terms of the material and concrete than in terms of abstract things like happiness and health.

44. Goodman, Mary Alice, 1952. F
Race awareness in young children.
Cambridge: Addison-Wesley Press.

PROBLEM: An investigation of awareness of race differences and feelings about such differences among young children.

SAMPLE: 103 Negro and white children between the ages of 3 years and 7 months and 5 years and six months. 57 of the children were Negroes and 46 were white. Intelligence (Stanford-Binet I.Q. Tests) ranged from 80 to 145.

METHOD: Data were gathered by three persons via the following means: (1) non-participant observation; (2) participant observation; (3) interviewing; (4) testing; and (5) access to school records. All data were organized on a case study basis. The data for each case were summarized and evaluated under the following two headings: (1) criteria for description and definition of awareness-attitude level; and (2) possible causes and correlates of awareness-attitude level.

RESULTS: (1) Four-year olds, particularly white ones, show unmistakable signs of the onset of racial bigotry.

(2) Negro children not yet 5 can sense that things are marked and grow uneasy.

(3) Higher levels of activity, emotionality, sensitiveness, gregariousness, competitiveness.

(4) Race awareness comes from personal, social, and cultural experiences. The child picks up the cues given by others.

(5) The social and cultural materials are all filtered through the personal ones in the process of taking root in children. Children will pick up certain cues and ignore others, depending upon their capacities and readinesses to see, remember. Even more important is his own physical make-up. Whether he is brown or white, handsome or not handsome, strong or weak -- these and other such personal factors can affect his responses to other people, and to the cues they offer. In addition, his personal needs and interests, deeply affect his responses.

(6) The process by which the patterned race attitudes characteristic of adult America get across even to very young children might be called generation.

CONCLUSION: The very complexity of the process of attitude-generation in the early ages makes it possible to attack while the personality is still malleable, and even before the generation process is well under way.

45. Gough, H. G., 1946. A, E, F, H, I
Relationship of socio-economic status to personality inventory and achievement test scores.
J. of Ed. Psychol., 37, 527-540.

A consideration of the relationship of socio-economic status to achievement tests and personality inventory scores as found among 6th grade public school children in St. Cloud, Minnesota.

Three schools were used, representing varying socio-economic levels. The following instruments were used: (1) American Home Scale; (2) Haggerty Delta II Intelligence Test; (3) O'Rourke Survey Test of Vocabulary; (4) Stanford Achievement Test; (5) Iowa Silent Reading Test; (6) Language Essentials Test; (7) Orleans Health Information Test; (8) Brown Personality Inventory for children.

A comparison of the high status school with the low status one reveals a difference on vocabulary of 7.39 points in favor of the high status school (sign. .01). Differences on IQ, age, and reading between these two schools are significant at the 5% level. Differences between the high and average status schools on vocabulary are significant at the 1% level. The average and low status schools differ significantly at the 5% level on reading.

Concludes that socio-economic status has a slight positive relationship to academic achievement, and that personality inventory scores have a slight negative relationship to achievement.

46. Gray, Susan W. and R. A. Klaus, 1963. D, H
Interim Report: early training project
George Peabody College and Murfreesboro, Tenn., City Schools.

Report of Early Training Project involving two experimental groups of approximately 20 Negro culturally-deprived children each (T1: two summers of school program and home contact for intervening year, starting at approximately age 3½; T2: one summer school program at approximately age 5) and two matched control groups. Program aimed at improving attitudes toward achievement and aptitudes and abilities (language, perception, concept formation) for school learning.

Results of pre- and post-testing showed significantly greater improvement on Binet and Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test for experimental groups than for controls over 15 month comparison. Average I.Q. gain for experimental group 1 was 10.1 points (from 85.6 to 95.7) and for exp. group 2 was 5.1 points (from 91.2 to 96.3) across 15 months. Control group 1 showed average decrease of 5 pts. (from 87.4 to 83.4) and control group 2 showed decrease of 2.5 (from 88.0 to 85.5) over same period of time.

47. Haggard, E. A., 1954. H, G, I
Social status and intelligence: an experimental study of certain cultural determinants of measured intelligence.
Genetic Psychological Monograph, 49, 141-186.

PURPOSE: To investigate the influence of social status, practice, motivation, form of test, and manner of presentation on intelligence test performance under controlled conditions.

Ss were drawn from all the 11-year-old children of a midwestern city of 115,000. A total of 671 children took part in the experiment and were subdivided into 28 subgroups of approximately equal size, matched on social-status (high and low, as determined by the Index of Social Characteristics), chronological age, school grade, and IQ. The experiment was executed 50 minutes per day for five consecutive days. All Ss were administered Initial Test of standard intelligence test items on first day. Experimental conditions involved Practice (motivated, unmotivated, and none) for 3 days, and Retest (motivated and unmotivated) using Initial Standard Test and Revised Test which minimized middle-class bias.

MAJOR RESULTS:

1. Practice facilitated gain in performance of the high-status Ss who took the Standard Retest, and gain of the low-status Ss who took the Revised Retest.
2. Low-status Ss, when motivated, did significantly better on the Standard retest than those not thus motivated.
3. Ss from both social-status groups made much greater gains on the revised than on the Standard Retest, with the low-status Ss showing the greater gain.
4. Ss from both SES groups performed better on a Revised Initial Test than on the Standard Initial Test.
5. Even though the various experimental treatments and conditions influenced the retest scores differentially, when the effects

of all treatments were combined, there was no significant difference between the two status groups in their ability to learn to solve intelligence test problems.

6. The mere revision of the test items was not sufficient to reduce the difference in performance between the groups - the marked discrepancy between them was only decreased when the conditions of Motivation and Practice were also present. All of the statistically significant differences attributable to Practice, Motivated Practice, and Motivated Retest occurred in connection with the Standard Retest; the Revised Retest was not so influenced by such conditions.

CONCLUSION: It does not follow from the findings what adequate measures of mental ability can be obtained by merely revising current intelligence tests to remove their middle-class bias. The study demonstrates that if the individual or group is not functioning with high motivation, or if efficient test-taking techniques haven't been developed, or if rapport isn't good, the resulting performance can readily be improved by improving these conditions.

48. Haubrich, V. F., June 1963. D
The culturally different: new context for teacher education.
Journal of Teacher Education, 14, 2, 163-167.

This is a description of a teacher training project at Hunter College to prepare teachers for "difficult" schools. The program assumes that training in these schools during student teaching with the option of permanent placement after graduation leads to better preparation of teacher for culturally deprived children.

Distinctive features of the training program include:

1. Student teachers volunteer for this placement.
2. Early in the semester the student handles 2 classes daily.
3. School personnel and college supervisor cooperate closely in supervision.
4. Regular program of visits to the community and its agencies and discussion of school offices and personnel services.
5. Regular program for contact, observation, and discussion of same.
6. School placement provides a direct means to enter teaching.

Over a two-year period, there were 32 volunteers of which 24 elected to remain in the "difficult" schools as regular teachers.

49. Havighurst, R. J. and A. Davis, 1943. G, B
Child socialization and the school.
Review of Educational Research.

This article includes a survey of the literature on child socialization and the school. The works include (a) theories of socialization, (b) socialization and the family, (c) socialization in playgroup and nursery school, (d) socialization in school groups, (e) socialization in peer groups outside of school, (f) socialization in social cliques, and (g) socialization in early adult society.

Among the conclusions stated are (1) "the evidence seems fairly clear that certain basic social and emotional habit patterns are learned during the preschool years of a child and are fairly well-established by the age of eight," (2) "...experience in nursery school increases the ability of a child to participate in a social group of his own age."

50. Havighurst, Robert J., and Dorothy Newbauer, 1949. G, H, B
Community Factors in Relation to character Formation.
Adolescent Character and Personality (New York: John Wiele and Sons), 27-46.

PROBLEM: This chapter "describes the moral setting in which Prairie City boys and girls live" (27). While the entire volume is concerned with the development and measurement of character and personality, each chapter is presented as a separate study. The subjects who became 16 years old in the calendar year of 1942 are a group of 144 adolescents who were investigated by different means. This chapter deals with the general moral environment in the community.

CONCLUSIONS: "Through the home, school, church, youth organizations, recreational agencies, and the informal 'peer culture' of the children's own world, values and moral standards are taught to boys and girls by their parents, teachers, and other adults in positions of prestige, and by leaders of their own age groups.

"Boys and girls tend to learn the values and standards of their own homes, churches, and social classes, but the adolescent peer culture of the high school is a pervasive middle-class influence, affecting all boys and girls who go to high school. In general, the school teaches middle-class values.

"The 'character-building' youth organizations teach middle-class values and appear mainly to middle-class youth, though they also succeed in serving a minority of lower-class youth."

"The commercial recreation places vary in their moral influence."(46) (Gottlieb and Reeves, 1963.)

51. Hieronymus, A. N., 1951. G, H
Study of social class motivation: relationships between anxiety for education and certain socio-economic and intellectual variables.
J. of Ed. Psychol., 42, 193-205.

A comparison of social and economic expectations of students in high school from differing socio-economic groups was reported.

Specifically, the purpose of this study was to determine the nature of the differences in social and economic expectations and attitudes toward education of pupils representing different socio-economic groups.

610 ninth grade students of four six-year high schools in a mid-western city were used as the sample. Scales measuring socio-economic status, attitude toward education, and level of socio-economic expectation were administered. IQ scores and performance scores on the Iowa Test of Educational Development were obtained.

From the evidence collected, the author concluded that (a) socio-economic status is more closely related to the level of socio-economic expectation than is test intelligence, (b) the relationship between IQ and attitude ($r = .30$), (c) a high correlation ($r = .50$) exists between socio-economic expectation and attitude, and (d) a correlation between the socio-economic expectation and attitude and composite scores on the Iowa Test of Educational Development ($.29 \lessgtr r \leqq .42$) existed.

The author concludes that the data provide empirical evidence that "socialized anxiety is a factor in selective processes of American Education."

52. Higgins, C., and Cathryne M. Silvers, 1958. H, E
A comparison of the Stanford Binet and the Colored Raven Progressive Matrices IQ for children with low socio-economic status.
J. Consult. Psychol., 22, 465-468.

PURPOSE: To test the assumption that verbal test items are more susceptible to degrees and varieties of social exposure and cultural deprivation, while non-verbal items are free of this influence. Hypothesized that for a population of low socio-economic status, there would be no significant difference between the Stanford-Binet IQ and an IQ obtained from a non-verbal test of intelligence.

METHOD: 789 pupils, ages from 7 to 9-11 years, from a low socio-economic area, were tested individually with the Stanford-Binet, followed by the Colored Ravens Progressive Matrices Test.

S-B IQ's for the 349 Negro Ss was 90.2; for the 440 white Ss, 90.6 a slight difference not statistically significant for these boys and girls. The non-verbal CRPM however discriminated on the basis of color, with the Negro mean scores in all instances (color, sex, color-sex, and age-color-sex) lower than the white mean scores. No significant difference was found for white children between their SB IQ and CRPM IQ, but the Negro Ss CRPM IQ means were significantly lower than their SB IQ means (Negro mean CRPM IQ, 80.5; white, 90.6).

CONCLUSION: "The present findings suggest that intelligence tests heavily loaded with non-verbal items may discriminate against Negro children."

53. Irwin, O. C., 1948a. E, A
Infant speech. The effect of family occupational status and of age on use of sound types.
J. speech hear. Disord., 13, 224-226.

Speech sound data were collected on two groups of infants, one including children from homes of laboring families, the other from homes of business, professional, and clerical families. Children varying in age from 1 to 30 months were studied. Data were analyzed for occurrence of speech sounds (phoneme types).

Mastery of speech sounds for the two class groups was found to progress at different rates. Analysis of variances of the data indicate significant differences with age and occupational status. The older children produce more sound types as do those from higher status homes. The effect of status seems particularly marked in the older infants (ages 1½ to 2½ years).

54. Irwin, O. C., 1948b. E, A
Infant speech. The effect of family occupational status and of age on sound frequency.
J. speech hear. Disord., 13, 320-323.

Speech sound data collected on two groups of infants, one composed of babies from business, clerical, and professional homes, the other of babies from homes of laboring families, were analyzed on the basis of phoneme frequency. Children ranged in age from 1 to 30 months.

Analysis of variance of the data indicates significant effect of age for both occupational groups; the older infants produce more sounds. Differences between the occupational groups were found to be negligible for the children under 1½ years of age, but highly significant for children 1½ to 2½ years old. This result is similar to the findings when sound types are used as the criterion of speech development.

55. Jensen, A. R., 1963. H, I, E
Learning ability in retarded, averaged and gifted children.
Merrill-Palmer Quarterly, 9 (2).

PROBLEM: How do children classified for educational purposes as "Mentally Retarded" differ in their learning abilities from children who are average or above average in measured intelligence and scholastic aptitude?

METHOD: Junior high school children classified as "educationally mentally retarded" (n-36) and also having Stanford-Binet IQs from 50 to 75 were compared on a selective learning task with average (n-24; IQs 90-110) and gifted (n-13; IQs above 135) children in the same school. Mean CAs 14.24, 14.23, and 14.29 respectively.

The task consisted of learning, by trial-and-error, to associate 5 or 6 different stimuli (colored geometric forms) with 5 or 6 different responses (an array of pushbuttons). All groups were given 2 tests, but special procedures were used with the retarded individuals between the first and second tests to make certain that they understood the instructions and produced evidence of learning. These procedures, variously used, were verbal reinforcement by E, stimulus naming, stimulus naming while learning, and delayed response following reinforcement.

RESULTS: There were highly significant differences between the groups on the Index of Learning, and the rate of learning correlated with IQ even within the retarded group (.50 on the first test; .35 for the last test for this group). Author suggests that the highest correlation with IQ was on the first test probably because the same ability to understand instructions which played an important part in performance on the learning task, was also one of the crucial factors in the S-B intelligence scale). Variability was much greater among the retarded, who also showed much greater improvement with practice on successive forms of the learning task. Some of the retarded Ss learned as fast as the gifted. Adding verbal reinforcement and requiring Ss to verbalize (by naming the stimuli) while learning, resulted in marked improvement of the learning rate of some Ss. The results were discussed in terms of hypotheses involving as yet undiscovered "dimensions" of learning ability, and in terms of the facilitative role of discriminative and mediating verbal behavior (especially "labeling") in learning.

CONCLUSION: Since the retarded group spanned the entire range of learning ability as measured by the last test, it was suggested that a variety of learning tests which tap different dimensions would render a more complete and more highly refined diagnosis of the learning ability of children classified as mentally retarded than is afforded by standard intelligence tests. He also hypothesizes that the normal and fast learners in the retarded group were not really retarded in a primary sense, but were children who, at some crucial period in their development, had failed to learn the kinds of behavior which are necessary as a basis for school learning and for the acquisition of the kinds of knowledge and skills tapped by IQ tests.

56. Jensen, A. R., 1963. F, E, C
Learning in the pre-school years.
J. nursery Educ., 18 (2), 133-138.

A review of some studies in animal and human learning which indicate the possibility that the amount and variety of verbal and sensory stimulation the organism experiences has considerable effect on learning behavior. Rats raised in a stimulating environment (triangles and circles on cage walls) versus a group raised in plain cages showed much more success in discrimination tasks (Gibson, 1956; Forgus, 1954).

Jensen studied the influence of exposure to an object with limited verbal contexts and exposure for same amount of time with multiple verbal contexts. Twenty-month-old children who had been exposed to "doll" in many verbal contexts showed greater ability to discriminate object "doll" from many objects. In another experiment, children shown an object for an equal length of time with one group allowed to handle object and the other group receiving visual experience alone were compared. Learning was more rapid for group which received both visual and tactile experience.

Author also reviews verbal mediation studies which indicate more rapid learning when task comes under verbal control. Implications for nursery education are discussed.

57. John, Vera P., 1963. E, H, A
The intellectual development of alum children: some preliminary findings.
Amer. J. Orthopsychiat., XXXIII, 5, 813-822.

This study examines certain patterns of verbal and cognitive behavior in a sample of grade 1 and grade 5 Negro children from 3 social classes. Lower-lower class included parents who had 9 years of schooling or less with father absent in 1/3 of the families. Upper-lower class included semi-skilled parents who had attended high school with father absent in 1/3 of the families. Middle class included parents who had attended college and were professionals and civil servants; 4 per cent of the fathers were absent.

69 first grade and 105 fifth grade children were administered tests which measured use of language as descriptive and integrative, and language as a conceptual tool as in classificatory behavior. Tasks involving labeling, relating, and categorizing were included.

Results showed differences between classes on Peabody Picture Vocabulary Test, Enumeration, Integration, IQ, and WISC vocabulary were not significant at grade 1 although trend with class was there. In grade 5 there were no differences in Enumeration but all other tests showed a significant difference in favor of the middle class. On the sorting task, fifth grade lower-class children sort cards into more piles and give significantly fewer explicit verbalizations of their sorting behavior than do the middle-class children. Group differences were small in relational use of language.

The author concludes that "acquisition of more abstract and integrative language seems to be hampered by the living conditions in the homes of lower-class children. Opportunities for learning to categorize and integrate are rare in the lives of all young children. This type of learning requires specific feedback or careful tutoring.

58. Jones, W. R., 1960.
A critical study of bilingualism and non-verbal intelligence.
Brit. J. Educ. Psychol., 30, 71-77.

PURPOSE: To examine the influence of variables other than the bilingual factor on non-verbal intelligence test performance, since other investigations (reviewed) had concluded that bilingualism has an adverse effect on performance in non-verbal tests.

METHOD: A re-analysis of results from the 1951 Bangor Survey in Caernarvonshire in the light of socio-economic data. All children between ages 10-11 had been given a series (unspecified) of tests and a language questionnaire and were grouped as a) Welsh, b) Mixed-Welsh, c) Mixed-English, and d) English. It had been found originally that there was a tendency for mean raw scores on the non-verbal test to increase as the linguistic composition of the group became progressively more English. On re-analyzing these results in relation to occupational data, it was found that various linguistic groups which did not vary significantly in occupational class didn't differ significantly in non-verbal intelligence.

CONCLUSION: Bilingualism isn't necessarily a source of intellectual disadvantage. "The importance of a thorough examination of socio-economic factors in any comparative study of monoglot and bilingual children is strongly emphasized."

59. Kahl, J. A., Summer 1953. A, G, I
Educational and occupational aspirations of 'Common Man' boys.
Harvard Educational Review, 23, 186-203.

This is an interview study aimed at exploring the social influences which helped to account for differences in motivation to go on to college among high school boys of similar background and intelligence level.

24 boys and their parents were interviewed at some length. 12 planned to go to college and 12 did not. All had IQ's in the top three deciles. The parents regarded themselves as "common man". 15 of the families had as their core value "getting by", while 9 families believed in the core value of "getting ahead". About 27 per cent of the getting by families had boys who planned to go to college, while almost 90 per cent of the getting ahead families had boys who planned to go to college.

Parents who were discontented with their status tended to train their sons from the earliest years of school to take school seriously and to use education as the means to climb into the middle class. Only sons who internalized such values were sufficiently motivated to overcome the obstacles which faced the common man's boys in school; only they saw a reason for good school performance and college aspirations.

60. Katz, Phyllis A. and M. Deutsch, 1963. H, F, I
Relation of auditory-visual shifting to reading achievement.
Percept. mot. Skills, 17, 327-332.

"One perceptual skill which may underlie reading behavior is the ability to process sequentially presented auditory and visual information. The present study investigated the hypothesis that retarded and potentially retarded readers would exhibit difficulty in rapidly shifting attention between auditory and visual stimuli."

Reaction times to a series of lights (red and green) and sounds (high and low) were obtained from48 Negro male normal and retarded readers in grades 1, 3, and 5. The interaction between type of reaction time (ipsi- and cross-model) and reading skill was significant at .01 level. Data support the hypothesis that shifting attention between modalities is more difficult for poor readers. Another possible explanation for the data is that the low group is poorer at response generalization, as the difference between the two groups diminishes during second half of test period. Age was found to be significantly associated with overall reaction time, with the older children reacting faster. IQ was found to be unrelated to performance on the task.

61. Keller, Suzanne, 1963. A, F, G, H, I
The social world of the urban slum child: some early findings.
Amer. J. Orthopsychiat., XXXIII, 5, 823-831.

This paper compares selected aspects of the after-school and home activities of a sample of poor Negro and Caucasian children currently attending first and fifth grades in New York City Public Schools.

46 first and fifth grade Negro students at Level IV on an Index of Social Class (Upper-lower Class) were tested, parents given questionnaires, and one-fifth of families interviewed. These were compared with white children and families at same social class level. Some findings for the Negro group:

1) IQ of first graders is 97, fifth graders is 89.
2) Family size is larger than whites.
3) Persons per room is 1.2.
4) Little job mobility of parents and most have unskilled and semi-skilled jobs.
5) One out of six of breadwinners are unemployed.
6) Two-thirds of families feel they are "going up in the world."
7) All have radio and TV and three-fourths spend at least 2 hours a day on TV.
8) Only one-half regularly eat a meal with parents (one or both).
9) 60 per cent of the self reports were unfavorable when they compared themselves with other children (55 per cent at 1st grade; 65 per cent at 5th grade).
10) 80 per cent of parents want children to finish college (on the average the parents have not gone beyond first year of high school. Mothers more than fathers).
11) Parents say they will be satisfied if the children get a steady and secure job.

In comparison with whites at same level:

12) 30 per cent of white children have negative self-evaluations as compared with 80 per cent of Negro children.

13) Teacher evaluations for 5th grade Negroes was little motivation for school work (50 per cent) typically sad and working below capacity.
14) All white parents satisfied with children's school work, but only 50 per cent of Negro parents satisfied with school progress of their children.
15) Same social class index is a very low status for whites but relatively high for Negroes.
16) More geographical mobility for Negroes (three-fourths of parents had moved but none of the whites had been born out of the North).

62. Kennedy, A., V. Van De Riet, and J. C. White, Jr. H, I
A normative sample of intelligence and achievement of Negro elementary school children in the southeastern United States.
Soc. Res. Child Develpm. Monogr., 28, 6.

A review of the literature on Negro-white differences in intelligence is included in the monograph, and indicates that Negroes typically score lower than the normative samples which excluded Negroes. Thus, it was felt that broad normative data on the Negro population is necessary to make intelligence test findings more meaningful for individual psychologists and educators who perform diagnostic evaluations on Negro school children.

METHOD: During the 1960-61 school year, a normative study of the intelligence and achievement of Negro elementary school children in 5 southeastern states was carried out. The sample of 1,800 represented two-thirds of a per cent of the children in the elementary school age range within Fla., Ga., Ala., Tenn., and S.C., evenly distributed between rural, urban, and metropolitan counties. The 1960 revision, Form L-M, of the Stanford-Binet Intelligence Test and the 1957 revision of the California Achievement Test were administered. Means and S.D.s were computed on the Binet and California data according to grade, sex, age, teacher rating, and community size. F tests were used to test the significance of the difference between means, and correlations were obtained between the tests and the demographic data.

RESULTS: Ss had a mean IQ of 80.7, S.D. 12.4, as compared with Terman and Merrill's data of a mean IQ of 101.8, S.D. 16.4. There was no significant trend in IQ from grades 1 thru 6, but IQ was negatively correlated with age, e.g. the 5-year-old group had a mean IQ of 86 as compared with the mean IQ 65 of the 13-year-olds. Binet IQ correlated highly with socio-economic level, upper level having a mean of 105 and lower, 79. There was only a slight mean difference between the IQs of metropolitan, urban, and rural Ss. Binet IQ correlated .32 with teacher over-all ratings. Analysis of Binet item difficulty and biserial correlation item analysis showed that the abstract verbal items appeared at too low an age level in the test, while rote memory, days of the week, making change, digits, and sentence memory items were placed at too high an age level. There did not seem to be any exceptionally high performance ability in contrast to low verbal ability.

Results from the CAT indicate an increase in the discrepancy between the mean of the Negro sample at each grade level and the mean of the normative sample used to standardize the test. CAT results were reported according to socio-economic level, showing a trend of proportionate decrease in achievement level as one goes down the socio-economic scale. Also, girls tended to score higher than boys at each level. No significant trends were observed between CAT and community size. A correlation of .69 was obtained between Binet MA and CAT. The correlation between Binet IQ and socio-economic status was low (.27) and only .17 with community size. But "the use of correlation data with the socio-economic data is questionable because of the disproportionally high number of children in the low group and low number in the high group."

63. Kirk, S. A. and J. J. McCarthy, 1961. E, H
The Illinois Test of Psycholinguistic Abilities -- an approach to differential diagnosis.
Amer. J. Ment. Def., 66, 399-412. (CDA 36:499)

A battery of nine tests of psycholinguistic abilities is described, together with four profiles and brief histories to illustrate possibilities of application. The theoretical model from which tests were derived bears some relationship to Osgood's models in communication theory and psycholinguistics, and to Wepman's model for aphasia. The test is a diagnostic instrument to provide information for remediating deficits in various psycholinguistic functions. The authors emphasize extending this type of behavior diagnosis to individually prescribed remedial teaching situations.

The test includes measures of modes of input and output (visual-auditory input; vocal-motor output); levels of organization (automatic-sequential, representational or meaning level); and psycholinguistic processes (decoding, encoding, and association).

64. Kirk, S.A., 1958. H, C
Early education of the mentally retarded.
Urbana: University of Illinois Press.

An investigation of the influence of nursery school-like experience on the intelligence of feebleminded children. Ss were 81 retarded children between 3 and 6 years old. 28 children attended a special nursery school; 15 institutionalized children attended an institution nursery school; controls were matched for place of residence (inst. or not inst.), IQ, and SES and did not attend school. IQ testing done initially, after nursery experience, and follow-up three to five years later.

Evidence presented both as case studies and group comparisons. Main finding was that the overall effect of the nursery experience on retarded children was positive. Of the 43 retarded children who had nursery experience, 30 (70%) showed an acceleration in rates of intellectual growth, ranging from 10 to 30 IQ points. Increase for experimental group was significantly higher (.05) than controls.

Six of the 15 institutionalized children improved sufficiently to allow placement in the community in foster homes. Moreover, the children retained the accelerated rates of growth established during the nursery-school experience during the follow-up period of from three to five years.

65. Klineberg, O., 1935. H, I
Negro intelligence and selective migration.
New York: Columbia University Press.

Problem: To determine whether the superiority of Northern over Southern Negroes on intelligence tests is due to selective factors in migration or whether it can be laid to a more stimulating environment in the North.

A comparison was made between the intellectual level of those who left the South and those who stayed behind through an examination of the school records in Nashville, Birmingham, and Charleston to see whether those children who had migrated to the North represented in their school work a superior group in relation to the total Negro school population in those cities. About 1000 records were examined and it was found that migrating children did not differ regularly or consistently from their non-migrating classmates in the matter of school marks.

A second method used was to give intelligence and performance tests to southern-born Negro children living in New York, comparing the groups with different lengths of residence in N.Y. 3081 Ss were involved in 9 distinct studies. Among the findings were that on the Stanford-Binet and National Intelligence Tests the scores of the migrants increased fairly regularly with increasing length of residence in N.Y., and tended with time to approximate those of the N.Y.-born. However, on the Otis-Self-Administering Examination there was no clear pattern of improvement associated with length of residence in N.Y., as was also true for other performance tests.

The author concludes that "...the superiority of the northern over the southern Negroes...due to factors in the environment, and not to selective migration."

66. Klineberg, O., 1963.
Negro-white differences in intelligence test performance: a new look at an old problem.
Amer. Psychologist, 18 (4), 198-203.

This is an attempt to bring up to date an analysis of the problem of Negro white differences in intelligence test performance. There is no question that on the average, Negro children obtain lower scores than whites (Shuey, 1958, on the basis of a review of 72 studies estimates the average IQ to be 85), but the crucial issue is that comparisons are permissable only when the environmental differences are absent or negligible. The 3 major studies cited by Shuey (Bruce, 1940; McGurk, 1951; Tanser, 1939) as demonstrating that differences persist even when environmental factors have been "equated" are criticized from the standpoint that equating on a socio-economic scale can't be regarded as taking care of all the relevant environmental variables. Evidence is cited against the assumption of native differences in intelligence and which illustrate what an improved educational environment may accomplish in terms of raising the IQ of Negro children. (Pasamanick, 1946; Araston & D'Angelo, 1952; Key, 1932; Klineberg, 1935; Clark, 1923; Lee, 1951, Stallinga, 196. He further points out that there is a great deal of overlap in scores and that group differences are obscure, uncertain, and do violence to the facts of individual capacities and potentialities. He concludes that "there is not scientifically acceptable evidence for the view that ethnic groups differ in innate abilities."

67. Klugman, S.F., 1944 H, G
The effect of money incentives vs. praise upon the reliability and obtained scores of the Revised Stanford-Binet test.
J. General Psychol., 30, 255-267.

Problem: To determine whether Ss would obtain higher Stanford-Binet (SB) if the incentive place of praise and whether the re this incentive.

38 white and 34 Negro school children in grades tested with one form of the Revised S-B and a week later with the other. Scores on the initial testing were 99.11 and 98.00 respectively for the two races. Money was used as the incentive in half the cases; praise in the other. Ss were divided on the basis of race, sex, age, and SES (based on Minn. Scale for Occupational Classification) for investigating the effects of the incentives.

It was found that the reliability coefficients for those tested with money were not significantly higher, nor were their mean obtained scores. All sub-groups studies (race, sex, age, grade, and father occupation) obtained higher mean scores on the money tests than on praise, but occurences were not statistically significant. There was, however, a significant superiority of the scores of Negro children when tested with money incentives (99.56) over Negro Ss tested with praise incentives (96.16). Also, although there was practically no difference between white and Negro Ss when money was the incentive, the whites showed (substantial superiority when praise is the incentive." Conclusion: Negro children given money rewards show better performance on an IQ test than those given praise as an incentive.

68. Knief, Lotus M. and J.B. Stroud, June 1959 H, I
Intercorrelations among various intelligence, achievement, and social class scores.
J. Educ. Psychol., 50, 117-120.

Purpose: To provide additional data on the social class or cultural bias in intelligence testing, and to ascertain interrelationships among certain relatively new intelligence tests and scholastic achievement.

Method: The Lorge-Thorndike Intelligence Tests, Verbal and Non-Verbal, Davis-Eells Games, Iowa Tests of Basic Skills, and the Warner Index of Status Characteristics were given to a sample of 344 4th grade pupils in a midwestern city. The Raven Progressive Matrix was given the following year to 164 of these pupils.

Results: All of the intelligence tests used on the ITBS composite scores correlated significantly with social status and to approximately the same degree (.30 - .34), except for RPM (.17).

"Perhaps the most important result from the multiple correlation analysis is the light it sheds upon the behavior of the tests involved. The zero order r's showed that the L-T Verbal test gave the best prediction of ITBS scores, followed in order by L-T Non-verbal, and Davis-Eels games...RPM correlated to a smaller degree with ITBS than any of the other intelligence tests."

Conclusion: "The analysis...gives little justification for use of the Davis-Eels games, L-T Non-V, and the RPM in conjunction with the L-T Verbal test for general predictive purposes."

69. Kohn, M.L., 1959. G, A
Social class and the exercise of parental authority.
Amer. sociol. Rev., 24, 252-266.
CDA 33: 748.

The conditions under which middle- and working-class parents punish their pre-adolescent children physically, or refrain from doing so, appear to be quite different. Working-class parents are more likely to respond in terms of the immediate consequences of the child's actions, middle-class parents in terms of their interpretation of the child's intent in acting as he does. This reflects differences in parents' values: Working-class parents value for their children qualities that assure respectability; desirable behavior consists essentially of not violating prescriptions. Middle-class parents value the child's development of internalized standards of conduct; desirable behavior consists essentially of acting according to the dictates of one's own principles. The first necessarily focuses on the act itself, the second on the actor's intent.

These conclusions were based on an interview study of 200 white workingclass and 200 white middle-class families with children in the fifth grade.

70. Kohn, M.L., 1963. G, A
Social class and parent-child relationships: an interpretation.
Amer.Journ. Soc., 68; 471-480.

The argument of this analysis is that class differences in parent-child relationships are a product of differences in parental values (with middle-class parents' values centering on self-direction and working-class parents' values on conformity to external prescriptions); these differences in values, in turn, stem from differences in the conditions of life of the various social classes (particularly occupational conditions -- middle-class occupations requiring a greater degree of self-direction, working-class occupations, in larger measure, requiring that one follow explicit rules set down by someone in authority). Values, thus, form a bridge between social structure and behavior.

71. Kohn, M.L. and Eleanor E. Carroll, 1960. G, A
Social class and the allocation of parental responsibilities.
Sociometry, 23, 372-392.
CDA 35: 219.

The purpose of the study was to examine "the effects of middle-and working-class parents' ideologies of child rearing upon the division, between mother and father, of responsibilities for the support and constraint of the children." Data concerning parents' and children's assessments of how these responsibilities should be, and are, in fact, allocated, were obtained.

The sample included 200 representative white working-class and 200 white middle-class families, each with a child in the fifth grade. Interviews were conducted with all of the mothers and with a fourth of the fathers and fifth-grade child subjects.

The results indicated that "Middle-class mothers emphasize the father's obligation to be as supportive as the mother herself; his role in imposing constraints is of only secondary importance. Working-class mothers would have their husbands be more directive; the father's responsibility is to play a major part in the imposition of constraints assumes far greater importance." While middle-class fathers tend to share their wives' conception of how responsibilities should be allocated, at least with regard to sons, working-class fathers feel that child rearing is the wife's responsibility.

72. Larson, R. and J.L. Olson, November 1963. C
A method of identifying culturally deprived kindergarten children.
Exceptional Children, 30, 130-134.

An attempt at systematically identifying culturally deprived children. Four hypotheses constituted the theoretical structure used for discrimination purposes. Hypotheses dealt with language development, self-concept, social skills and cultural differences. A battery of tests was assembled to be used for evaluation, selection, and information purposes and was administered to 250 kindergarten children in Racine, Wisconsin. An experimental and control group of children were selected on the basis of this battery. Curriculum plans are being made on the basis of the test results and continued evaluation will be carried out through the early school year.

The battery was:

Language Development: Illinois Tests of Psycholinguistic Abilities, Metropolitan Readiness Test, Tape Recordings, Binet Vocabulary, Symbol Recognition test (familiar objects), Teacher Screening Device, and Body Type-Self Measure.

Self-Concept: Impossible Questions (frustration task), Sex and Race-Self Measure, House-Tree-Person Drawings, and Teacher Screening.

Social Skills: Parent Questionnaire (home activities), Teacher Screening.
Cultural Differences: Parent Questionnaire, Teacher Screening, General Information Test (child's knowledge of immediate environment), Enrollment form, and Stanford Binet IQ

Comment: An exceptionally fine attempt at systematic identification of culturally deprived children based on extensive use of research results.

73. Lee, E.S., 1951.
Negro intelligence and selective migration: A Philadelphia test of the Klineberg hypothesis.
Amer. social. Rev., 16, 227-233.

Purpose: To investigate the relationship between intelligence test scores of Negro children and length of time spent in northern schools, by analyzing re-test scores of the same children after varying periods of northern residence.

The basic groups of Negro children studied consisted of 212 Philadelphia-born Ss who had attended kindergarten, 424 who hadn't attended kindergarten, and 930 migrants from the South who were divided into 5 classes, according to the grade in which they entered the Philadelphia school system. Mean IQ's from the Philadelphia Tests of Mental and Verbal Ability from initial tests and subsequent retests (grades 1, 2, 4, 6, and 9) were compared.

It was found that the group which had attended kindergarten averaged consistently higher than the group which entered the 1st grade with no pre-school experience. Within each of the Philadelphia-born groups there was no consistent tendency for scores to rise upon retesting, but in each of the groups who had migrated to the city, there was a significant tendency for mean scores to improve with increasing length of northern residence, with the earlier an entry, the higher the IQs in any one grade. The Primary Mental Abilities test and the Minn. Paper Form Board were also administered to some of the Ss to determine whether any improvement in general intelligence was associated with only 1 or 2 specific abilities and again found that test scores and length of residence were highly related except for PMA Memory test.

74. Leshan, L. L., 1952. G, A
Time orientation and social class.
J. Abn. and Soc. Psychol., 47, 589-592.

The hypothesis investigated in this paper is that temperal goal orientations vary by social class. Lower-lower class orientation is conceived of as quick sequences of tension and relief, with little planning for the future. Time orientation in the upper-lower, middle and lower-upper classes is one of longer tension-relief sequences and planning further into the future as the individual grows older.

The author presents reexamination of certain child-rearing data which confirms the expectation that training in these social classes is consistent with the hypothesis. Lower-lower class families tend to train children with immediate punishments and rewards. Upper-middle, middle, and lower-upper families tend to stress the future and punishment and reward are often deferred.

117 children 8 to 10 years old were asked to tell a story to the examiner. 74 children were lower class and 43 were middle class. Stories of middle-class children were found to contain a longer time period for action than those of lower-class children. The difference was significant at .001 level.

The author concludes that time orientation varies systematically with social class and suggests this factor should be considered in educational efforts with lower-class children.

75. Levinson, B. M., 1961. H, G, I
Subcultural values and IQ stability.
J. Genet. Psychol., 98, 69-82.

PROBLEM: Under what conditions may the IQ remain stable in a deviant culture? Hypothesized that every sub-culture envisages an "ideal" personality molded to its own needs, and that to approximate this it creates cultural pressures which are a selective force in the development of certain psychological abilities which are important for growth, development, and survival of the group. The process through which the subculture shapes the personality has a significant relationship to intelligence and must therefore be evidenced in terms of intelligence test scores.

METHOD: Re-examined in 1958-59 Jewish children attending day (Yeshiva) schools who had taken the WISC in 1956-57 at time of admission, found a significant increase in WISC verbal scores, while the increase in WISC performance scores was not significant, there being a decline of scaled scores on some of the sub-tests. The inference was drawn that a prior selection of test items without considering the values of the traditional Jewish sub-culture might lead one, depending upon the items selected, to believe in either increase or decrease or stability of IQ. The WISC verbal may measure the culturally accepted criteria of ability for this sub-culture.

CONCLUSION: That it is necessary in interpreting IQ changes to consider both the items composing the scales as well as the values of the subculture tested.

76. Liddle, Gordon P., Dec. 1959. I, D
An experimental program for slow learning adolescents.
Educational Leadership, 17, 189-192.

Report of a 2-year experimental program with 40 children starting in 8th grade with IQs ranging from 75-89. Curriculum included sustained contact with one teacher, instruction in language arts, use of learning experiences with non-academic connotations such as role playing and field trips, and informal classroom atmosphere. Control group of 20 similar children remained in regular classes.

After 2 years:

(1) There was no significant difference in improvement in school achievement as measured by California Achievement Battery.
(2) There was significant improvement in attitudes toward school in the experimental groups.
(3) There was a significant decrease in antisocial behavior as seen in both frequency and seriousness of delinquent acts.
(4) There was no significant difference in personal adjustment scores as measured by California Psychological Inventory.

77. Lynn, D. B. and W. L. Sawrey, September 1959. A
The effects of father-absence on Norwegian boys and girls.
J. Abnor. and Soc. Psychol., 59, 258-262.

In order to examine the effect of father absence on boys as compared with that on girls, the authors studied 40 father-absent families and 40 father-present families in Norway. All families had about the same status level. The absent fathers were sailors and whalers who were away about 9 months out of each year. Used an interview and a Structured Doll Play test for the children who were in the early level of primary education.

The authors found:

(1) More father-absent boys than father-present boys showed immaturity.
(2) Father-absent boys showed stronger striving toward father identification than father-present boys.
(3) Father-absent boys showed more compensatory masculinity.
(4) Father-absent boys had poorer peer adjustment than father-present boys or father-absent girls.
(5) Father-absent girls were more dependent on the mother than father-present girls.

Absence of the father does affect the personality development of children. However, other factors may also be involved, such as the kind of woman who marries a sailor, etc.

78. MacDonald, M., C. McGuire, and R. J. Havighurst, May, 1949.
Leisure Activities and the Socio-Economic Status of Children.
American Journal of Sociology, LIV, 505-519.

PROBLEM: To test the hypothesis that children in different socio-economic groups have different leisure activities and to examine children's leisure activities which are typical of their socio-economic groups.

METHOD: The sample consisted of 241 fifth, sixth, and seventh graders (ages 10-12) in a public school located in a heterogenous urban community. Socio-economic status was determined by father's occupation and type of housing.

CONCLUSIONS: Systematic differences were found in the leisure-time activities of members of the four social strata. Significant differences were also found between the social strata with regard to the number of activities within the family, the highest stratum having the most family activity. The number of respondents who read books increased as one moved from the lowest to the highest stratum. Those in the lower strata attended significantly more movies than did those in the upper strata. The authors also found that a significant number of lower-class children were participating in predominantly middle-class activities. (Gottlieb and Reeves, 1963)

79. McBee, G. and R. L. Duke, February 1960. H , I, G
Relationship between intelligence, scholastic motivation, and academic achievement.
Psychological Reports, 6, 3-8.

PROBLEM: The effect of intelligence and scholastic motivation and the inter-relationships of these factors on academic achievement.

METHOD: Tests of intelligence (California Tests of Mental Maturity), scholastic motivation (scale from the Brown-Holtzman Survey of Study Habits and Attitudes), and academic achievement (Sequential Tests of Educational Progress, and the California Tests of Achievement) were administered to 7th grade students. Scores from the CTMM and the Scholastic Motivation Scale were used as criteria for selection of 180 Ss, grouped in 3 levels of intelligence and 3 levels of motivation. Data was analyzed by means of analysis of variance using a 3 x 3 factorial design for each achievement sub-test.

RESULTS: Analysis indicated a strong positive relationship between intelligence and achievement. The relationship between scholastic motivation and achievement appeared to be a significant factor in the areas of arithmetic, reading, and science, but not in language function and social studies. The relationship between intelligence and motivation was found to be additive rather than multiplicative, i.e., an increase in scholastic motivation would result in about the same increase in performance regardless of level of mental functioning.

80. McCandless, B., April 1952. H, F, E
Environment and intelligence.
American Journal of Mental Deficiency, 56, 674-91.

PURPOSE: To demonstrate the essential nature of environment both in the development and maintenance of intellectual functioning. A "learning point of view is seen as fitting parsimoniously with evidence gathered from studies" (and reviewed in the context of McCandless' theoretical position) done on pre-school children, children from different social classes, foster children, and sub-cultural mental defectives. He concludes that it seems likely that intelligence level may be a function of the amount of material available for learning and the types of learning which take place.

The bright individuals have rich opportunities to learn intellectually as well as "opportunities to learn relatively constructive expectancies" (i.e., the child is richly equipped verbally to incorporate his environment, and increases progressively in power to handle it and achieve success.) The dull have a paucity of learning experiences of a constructive intellectual sort (the "performance" skew of the lower socio-economic class child progressively limits him; he is without tools to assimilate to the same degree new experiences and becomes increasingly more concrete and inflexible in his intellectual power) but a "richness of opportunity to learn self-defeating behaviors (i.e., expectancies of failure, absolute as opposed to abstract thinking, belief in his essential unworthiness, a perceived failure to reach a goal). The various frustrations experienced by the culturally deprived child are seen as interfering with his problem-solving ability.

81. McCarthy, Dorothea, 1930.
Language development of the preschool child.
Inst. Child. Welf. Monogr., No. 4, Minneapolis

This study was an investigation of the acquisition of speech in children in the preschool years. Subjects were children between 18 and 54 months of age. 140 children, 20 at each of seven age levels, were selected to be representative of occupational distribution of Minneapolis using paternal occupation. Children were observed at home or in nursery school alone with investigator. Fifty consecutive spontaneous verbal responses were recorded for each child while S played or looked at picture books. A response was a unit of speech preceded and followed by pauses.

Mean length of response for every age group was found to be significantly higher for higher SES (classes 1-3 on Goodenough-Tausing-Barr Scale) children than for lower SES (classes 4-6) children. Using Piaget's functional analysis in relation to paternal occupation, children from upper SES were found to use a larger percentage of adapted-information responses and ask more questions than the children of lower SES.

82. McGehee, W. and W. D. Lewis, 1942. H, I, A
Socio-economic status of the homes of mentally superior and retarded children and the rank of their parents.
Pedagogical Seminary, 60, 375-380.

PROBLEM: Most investigations of social class and intelligence have failed to emphasize the many exceptions reported in their data and are open to question either from the point of view of techniques in securing Ss, or because of the limited geographic area or number of cases from which Ss drawn.

METHOD: Ss drawn from population of approximately 45,000 children in grades 4-8 in 455 schools, in 310 communities, and in 36 states. Took upper and lower 10% of these on Kuhlmann-Anderson test, plus third group selected at random representing the average child and correlated with SES information (Terman-Taussig and modified Sims Score Card). (Superior, n-4, 176; Average, n-12, 390; Retarded, n-3, 697) Data show positive relation between intelligence and father occupation-SES, but authors emphasize that Superior and Retarded children are found at all levels and show that the great bulk of Superior and Retarded children come from "average" homes.

CONCLUSION: That positive relationships between SES and mental ability holds primarily when group averages are considered and that a knowledge of the parents occupation or SES conditions of the home is a very precarious index of the child's intelligence.

83. McKee, J. P. and F. B. Leader, 1955. G, F, B
The relationship of socio-economic status and aggression to the competitive behavior of preschool children.
Child Development, 26 (2), 135-141.

The authors investigated the following hypotheses: (1) Competitive behavior will appear earlier and be more intense among children from lower socio-economic origins. (2) A substantial positive correlation between competition and aggression exists. (3) With older subjects aggression will be more common among lower socio-economic groups.

Fifty-six pairs of 3 and 4 year old children equally divided as to age, sex, and socio-economic status (family income) were tested in an experimental play situation. The sample was first pre-tested and then matched. Their behavior and verbalization were rated for degree of competition and the degree of aggression. Competition was defined as behavior of which the intent was to excell. Aggression was defined as behavior of which the intent was to injure.

The major findings included: (1) A low correlation existed between competition and aggression (r - + .22). (2) Significantly more competition was found among children from lower socio-economic origins than among children from upper-middle socio-economic origins. (3) More instances of competition occurred among older children than among younger and among boys than girls. (4) Aggression was more common among the lower status children. (5) Sex and age differences in aggression did not appear.

The authors noted that "the lower group in this study probably corresponds more closely to Warner's lower-middle class than to his lower class."

84. Maas, H. S., 1951. A, B, G
Some social class differences in the family systems and group relations of pre- and early adolescents.
Child Development, 22, 145-152.

Specifically, the purpose of the study was to propose a reinterpretation of some social behavioral patterns of pre- and early adolescents in lower and core culture families.

Twenty-one subjects were studied as the sample. Interviews with parents and peers were made to determine the subjects' relations with parents, siblings, and peers.

The results reported included observed psychologically closed and quite rigid parental relationships with children in the lower class. The core culture children were reported as experiencing a more open and flexible parental relationship. Lower class children expressed a fear of parental authority and were characterized as either a prototype of the "bully" or an over-submissive follower. The core culture children were reported as not seeming to fear or to identify with threatening power of adults. Lower class parents were reported as closed or inaccessible to the child's communication, core culture parents as open to communication. The peer relations of lower class children were classified into two types of security-seeking relationships: one in which the child identified with power and needed peers to establish his high status in relation to his contemporaries; the other in which the child seemed dependent upon their physical presence for mutual succorance and direction. In core culture peer groups a much less dependent relationship among siblings and peers was reported.

No data reported.

85. Marshall, Helen R., and Boyd R. McCandless, December 1957. B, C
Relationships Between Dependence on Adults and Social Acceptance by Peers.
Child Development, XXVIII, 413-419.

PROBLEM: "Is the degree of the preschool child's dependence on adults in free play situations related to his participation with and acceptance of his peers? If so, is this relationship affected by length and progress of acquaintanceship?"

METHOD: Data were gathered from sociometric tests and observations of two 19 member groups of preschool children, group one averaging 4.4 years and group two, 4.11 years.

CONCLUSIONS: These data indicate that dependence on adults in the preschool situation accompanies relatively low social status and participation within the peer group. No conclusions were drawn concerning the effect of length of acquaintanceship on peer acceptance. (Gottlieb and Reeves, 1963)

86. Milner, E., 1951. A, E
A study of the relationship between reading readiness in grade one school children and patterns of parent-child interactions.
Child Development, 22, 95-112.

This study investigated certain parent-child interaction patterns as related to reading readiness of first grade children. The subjects for the study were 42 first grade children who were identified as high and low scorers on reading readiness. Interviews were conducted with the children and their mothers.

All but one high scorer were in middle and upper classes; all but one low scorer were in lower classes. Interview results indicate that the high scorers have a much richer verbal environment than low scorers: there are more books in the home, they are read to more often, they speak with parents' at meals and at other times. Low scorers are subjected to physical punishment much more often than high scorers.

87. Montague, D. O., 1964. H
Arithmetic concepts of kindergarten children in contrasting socio-economic areas.
Elem. School Journal, 64, 393-397.

An investigation of social class differences in arithmetic concepts in kindergarten children.

The Arithmetic Concepts Inventory constructed by A. K. Ruddell was administered to 51 low SES and 31 high SES kindergarten children who had been in school for seven months. The inventory includes subtests of Enumeration, Quantitative Relationships, Symbol Recognition, Social Usage, and Problem Solving.

A significant difference between classes on total score on the inventory was found. The lower SES students were lower in the arithmetic concepts test.

88. Neugarten, Bernice L., January 1946. B, A
Social Class and Friendships Among School Children.
American Journal of Sociology, LI, 305-313.

PROBLEM: To answer the question, does the social class position of the family play an important part in the child's choice of friends or in his reputation among his peers?

METHOD: Sociometric opinion polls and questionnaires were administered to 174 boys and girls in grades 5 and 6 and to 206 boys and girls in grades 10 and 11, representing all of the social classes of the town.

CONCLUSIONS: (1) A striking relationship between the socio-economic position of the family and the child's sociometric status was found to exist at two levels; (2) although both age groups make distinctions along class lines in the picking of friends, the older children are not using this distinction to determine whom they reject as friends. (Gottlieb and Reeves, 1963)

89. Osborne, R. T., 1960. H, I
Racial differences in mental growth and school achievement; a longitudinal study.
Psychological Reports, 7, 233-239.

The California Achievement and Mental Maturity tests were administered to 815 white and 446 Negro children in a southeastern state longitudinally through grades 6, 8, and 10. Differences in reading and arithmetic achievement between the two groups increased from grade 6 to grade 10, with Negro group lower.

Difference on reading scores (vocabulary and comprehension) increased from about 2 grades in grade 6 to above 3 grades in grade 10. Arithmetic reasoning showed a 1 grade difference at grades 6 and 8 and about a 3 grade difference at grade 10. Performance on arithmetic fundamentals showed a difference of 1 grade at grade 6, about 2 grades at grade 8, and 4 grades at grade 10. In all cases the white group was at or close to the expected national grade norm.

M.A. showed a 2 grade difference at grade 6 and almost 4 grade difference at grade 10. "For the Negro group achievement and mental maturity growth became negatively accelerated or leveled off in the 14 to 16 age range. At the latest testing regression effect tended to reduce in range and variability of M.A. scores."

90. Passamanick, B. and Hilda Knobloch, 1955. H, E
Early language behavior in Negro children and the testing of intelligence.
Journal of Abnormal and Social Psychology, 50, 401-402.

HYPOTHESIS: That awareness of E's different skin color causes sufficient inhibition to decrease verbal responsiveness, thus language scores, on intelligence tests.

METHOD: 40 Negro children were examined by a white E at 24.4 months of age using the Gesell Developmental exam. Found that gross motor behavior was markedly accelerated over previous testing. However, language behavior, while not retarded when compared to white norms, was significantly lower than the other fields of behavior, and lower than it was on the 2 previous examinations. To test above hypothesis, the language items were divided into Reported Language, Comprehension of Language, and Verbal Responsiveness categories, and found that performance on the Verbal Comprehension parts were significantly higher than that on Verbal Responsiveness, with Reported Lanugage in between and not significantly different from the other two. Authors attribute poorer language behavior scores therefore to lack of verbal responsiveness because of presence of white E.

CONCLUSION: Early awareness of racial differences and loss of rapport has serious implications in the field of ethnic group psychology, particularly in the use of verbal items on intelligence testing.

91. Pasamanick, B. and Hilda Knobloch, 1958. A, H
Contribution of some organic factors to school retardation in Negro children.
J. Negro. Ed., 27 (1), 4-9.

A discussion of prenatal influences on development based on studies of subjects from varying social strata and Negro and white. "Cerebral palsy, mental deficiency, epilepsy, childhood behavior disorders, and reading disability have been found to be associated with complications of pregnancy, chiefly hypertension and bleeding and prematurity." Complications of pregnancy and prematurity are associated with lower SES and are also more common among Negroes. Nutritional factors may be causative. Authors suggest that Ausubel's finding that girls have less behavior disorders, reading disabilities and more adequate adjustment may be explained in part due to a relative higher frequency of birth complications and prematurity for males.

92. Pettigrew, T., Winter 1964. H, G, F, D, A, I
Negro American intelligence: a new look at an old controversy.
J. Negro Euc., 6-25.

This is a summary of the relevant research on Negro-white intelligence, with particular attention to the more recent research. Presents the "Scientific racist position" of Garrett, McGurck, and Shuey, but devotes the major portion of the article to the "modern psychological position" which favors a non-genetic interpretation of the typically lower intelligence score averages of Negro groups. He discusses the relevant research in terms of new theoretical conceptions, mediators of intellectual underdevelopment, varying opportunities and group results, and the individual vs. the group. He concludes that from the array of research presented, the overwhelming opinion of modern psychologists supports the notion that the mean differences observed between Negro and white children are largely the result of environmental rather than genetic factors, that intelligence is a plastic product of inherited structure developed by environmental stimulation and opportunity.

The severely deprived surroundings of the average Negro child can lower his measured IQ in two ways: 1) it can act to deter his actual intellectual development by presenting him with such a constricted encounter with the world that his innate potential is barely tapped, and 2) it can act to mask his actual functioning intelligence in the test situation by not preparing him culturally and motivationally for such a middle-class task. He also points out that if there are any inherent distinctions, they are inconsequential since differences in IQ within any one race greatly exceed differences between races.

93. Phelps, Harold, and Horrocks, John E., March, 1958. B
Factors Influencing Informal Groups of Adolescents.
Child Development, XXIX, 69-86.

PROBLEM: To investigate attitudes and activities leading to the establishment of informal adolescent groups.

METHOD: Interviews and questionnaires were used to obtain data from a random sample of 200 boys and girls in grades 7 through 12.

CONCLUSIONS: (1) The most important over-all reason for the establishment of informal groups among adolescents is to achieve a degree of emancipation from adult control; (2) they are formed by lower-class adolescents to fulfill a need for status and recognition not afforded by the middle-class values of students and faculty of the school; (3) the middle-class adolescents form such groups for a variety of reasons such as pressure toward social conformity, home pressure to assume as semi-adult social role, opportunities for unchaperoned activities, pressure to play the masculine role and to escape the moral code of the home and school. (Gottlieb and Reeves, 1963).

94. Piaget, J., and B. Inhelder, 1947. H, E
Diagnosis of mental operations and theory of intelligence.
American Journal Mental Deficiency, 51, 401-406.

SUMMARY: Two criticisms are leveled at metric scales of intelligence as being insufficient methods of diagnosis of the abnormal child's mental functioning: 1) "A test only gives us results on efficiency of mental activity without grasping the psychological operations in themselves...the test provides the sum of successes and failures, which is the actual result of past activities and attainments, but it leaves untouched the way in which these have been reached. 2) Mental age, in reference to a scale of average efficiency, does not correspond to any natural phase of mental development....the fact that a child succeeds in any one test does not necessarily imply that he will have succeeded in all those of lower age-groups...Such a method falls short of grasping the advance of mental activity with age, the latter being characterized by an integration of lower levels into the superior ones."

Taking these criticisms into account, it is then suggested that a series of tests should be made up in order that success in B test would pre-suppose success in A test, etc., forming a Guttman scale, which could be attained by qualitative and genetic analysis of the operations involved in any psychological action. This is illustrated with the development of notions of conservation of matter, weight and volume, which follow each other in succession necessarily by logical implication for all children, thus making it possible to place abnormal phenomena of feeble-minded reasoning at a stage of mental evolution.

95. Raab, S., M. Deutsch, and A. M. Freedman, 1960. H, I, F
Perceptual shifting and set in normal school children of different reading achievement levels.
Percept. mot. Skills, 10, 187-192.

A pilot study to investigate the relationship between reading achievement and ability to shift response from one sensory modality to another used 24 children in 4th and 5th grade in N.Y. city. Fourteen good readers and ten poor readers were compared on reaction-time task utilizing light and sound stimuli.

"Poor readers showed significantly greater difficulty in making a cross-modal shift than normal readers; both good and poor readers formed sets to light but formed no sets to sound." Although the groups differed in IQ, the performance on the reaction-time task showed no significant relationship to IQ and the authors suggest that modality shifting may be tapping the "relationship between perception and reading."

96. Rapier, Jacqueline L., 1962. H, F
Measured intelligence and the ability to learn.
Acta Psychol., XX, 1, 1-17.

The author reviewed some of the literature which challenged the belief in the inherent relation of intelligence and learning. Woodrow in an earlier review had argued that test users who identified intelligence with learning had confused achievement with the ability to gain with practice, and that individuals do not possess a unitary general learning ability. Measures of learning in the laboratory and in the school, however, did not support such a belief, but the experimental evidence was open to criticism for weaknesses in methodology. Improvement of methodology was difficult, particularly in terms of finding reliable and representative learning measures.

More recent research is reviewed which offers fresh approaches to the problem. Some investigators have used subnormals as subjects and have shown that they can compete with normals in certain learning situations. Others explain the often-reported lack of relationship between intelligence and learning as an effect of individual differences in learning and have turned to an investigation of the learning process itself to observe what happens at different stages of learning. Another approach is represented by investigators who are concerned with broadening knowledge of intelligence by discovering more of the factors that make up intellectual ability.

97. Reis, A. J. and A. L. Rhodes, 1959. G, A
Are educational norms and goals of conforming, truant and delinquent adolescents influenced by group position in American society?
J. Negro Ed., 28, 3, 252-267.

This paper describes the educational achievement goals and the value placed on schooling by an adolescent population.

Questionnaires were used to gather information from pupils in grades 7-12 in public, private, and parochial schools of Nashville, Tennessee. (n approx. 22,000)

Each of the following vary substantially with race, sex, IQ, and socio-economic status:

1) Perception of how much education most people ought to get
2) Adolescent evaluation of how important schooling is to them
3) How far their mothers expect them to go in school
4) How far they want to go in school
5) Their desire to quit school
6) To quit school because one is forced to go
7) To quit school and go to work

Delinquents and truants are more likely to want to quit school and get a job than they are to want to quit school because they regard compulsory school attendance as coercive. Negro adolescents value schooling more than white adolescents and are more achievement oriented in terms of their educational aspirations. The age, sex, IQ, and SES of the Negro is of less influence on his behavior than his race position as compared to white adolescents.

98. Riese, Hertha, 1962. F
Heal the Hurt Child.
Chicago, University of Chicago Press.

The emotionally disturbed child in the Negro community is "in despair, his hope is crushed, he is frightened, suspicious, and "angry." He has been reared in an extra-ordinarily disordered and depriving environment. "It is not due to his 'Negro-ness,' but to the deprivation".

The standard treatment techniques are inappropriate. He is "treatable" when diagnosis is appropriate and the method of treatment based on the diagnosis.

The therapeutic methods and the teaching methods must fit the needs of the child. The child must be treated not only as an individual, but as part of a family - the solution seems to be family psychiatry.

99. Riesman, F., 1962. A, G, H, D
The culturally deprived child.
New York: Harper.

The book draws upon personal experience and empirical literature in its attempt to adequately characterize the culturally deprived child and to suggest action implications for the school. Among the major points are the following:

1. Education is desired by the culturally deprived more than is generally recognized, but the reasons for wanting education are not those stressed by the school. The school emphasizes education for its own sake and to develop self-expression, whereas the culturally deprived will usually be interested in education for vocational reasons, to get along in the modern world, or because of a high respect for science.

2. Strengths and weaknesses of the culturally deprived can be tentatively enumerated. Weaknesses: narrowness of traditionalism, pragmatism, anti-intellectualism; limited development of individualism and creativity; alienation; political apathy; suggestibility and naivete; boring occupation tasks; crowded homes. Strengths: cooperativeness and mutual aid of extended families; lack of strain accompanying competition and individualism; equalitarianism, informality and humor; freedom from self-blame and parental overprotection; lessened sibling rivalry, security found in the extended family and in a traditional outlook.

3. Deprived child's styles included: (a) physical and visual rather than aural, (b) content-centered rather than form-centered, (c) externally oriented rather than introspective, (d) problem-centered rather than abstract-centered, (e) inductive rather than deductive, (f) spatial

rather than temporal, (g) slow, careful, persevering (in areas of importance), rather than quick, facile, flexible, (h) definite lack of formal language skills, but high development of informal language and gestures.

100. Rosen, Bernard C., April, 1956. G, F, A
The Achievement Syndrome: A Psychocultural Dimension of Social Stratification.
American Sociological Review, XXI, 203-211.

PROBLEM: From the proposition that social mobility can be explained in terms of the differing psychological motives and cultural values of the social classes, the author hypothesizes that social strata are dissimilar with respect to achievement motivation and value orientation.

METHOD: 120 male, white high school students, 14-16 years old, in the New Haven area were given a Thematic Apperception Test type projective test. The sample was stratified by the social position of the major wage-earner in the family.

CONCLUSIONS: The findings supported the hypothesis of differences in value orientation and achievement motivation between social classes. It was generally found that high motivation scores were related to high grades but value orientations were not. It was also found that educational aspiration was related to value orientation but not to motivation score. The author suggests that middle-class children are more likely to be taught both the motives and the values that make achievement possible. (Gottlieb and Reeves, 1963)

101. Rosen, B. C. and R. D'Andrade, 1959. A, G
The psycho-social origins of achievement motivation.
Sociometry, 22, 185-218.

This study examines the origins of achievement motivation (need achievement) within the context of the individual's membership in the family and social class.

Forty white boys about ten years of age (20 high on need achievement and 20 low as measured by TAT procedures) (10 in each group were middle class and 10 were lower class) were matched on IQ by group. Each boy in the presence of his father and mother was given a number of experimental tasks which gave opportunity for parents to interact with the child.

From the observations in these experimental situations, it is concluded:

1) Fathers and mothers provide achievement training and independence training, but fathers contribute more to independence training of boys than do mothers.
2) Mothers of boys with high achievement motivations stress achievement training and they are more dominant and expect less self reliance than mothers of boys with low achievement motivation. These mothers (higher ach.) reward their sons with approval and punish them with hostility.

3) In order for high achievement to develop the boy appears to need more autonomy from his father than from his mother.
4) No difference is found by social class. However, it is believed the matching of boys with achievement and the other variables cancels out differences in training practices which might normally differentiate the social classes.

102. Sarason, I. G., 1963. H, F, G, I
Test Anxiety and intellectual performance.
J. abnorm. soc. Psychol., 66 (1), 73-75.

PURPOSE: To extend Sarason's earlier findings, that the Test Anxiety Scale (TAS) was significantly and negatively correlated to intellectual performance, but that more general measures of anxiety were unrelated to performance with high school students.

219 eleventh grade students and 214 twelfth grade students were administered the TAS, and the Need for Achievement Scale (NAS), a more general measure of anxiety. Scores on the 2 anxiety tests were related to scores on the School and College Ability Test (SCAT).

Test anxiety (TAS) was found to be negatively correlated with SCAT scores (r's of - .30 to - .55), the correlation being larger for females than males, but NAT scores showed only a slight tendency to correlate negatively with SCAT scores for boys, and only - .11 to - .24 for girls. It was found in comparing the 11th with the 12th grade that TAS-SCAT r's for grade 11 were equal to or greater than those for grade 12.

"The results were interpreted as being consistent with the conception of anxiety as an interfering non-intellectual influence on intellectual performance," and "the hypothesis was supported that the nature of the anxiety-intelligence relationship is a function of the anxiety scale employed."

103. Schreiber, D., December 1958. D, H, I, G
Identifying and developing able students from less privileged groups.
High Points, 40, 5-23.

PURPOSE: This article is an early report on the Pilot Demonstration Guidance Project, later known as the Higher Horizons program, conducted at New York City's Manhattanville Jr. High School. The program, which began in Sept. 1956, had as its purpose the early identification and stimulation of able students, especially students from low status socio-economic and culturally-deprived homes, to continue their education through college.

METHOD: Students were selected on the basis of their cumulative record, SRA Non-Verbal Intelligence Test, Stanford-Reading Test, Stanford Arithmetic Test, Draw-A-Person Test scores, plus their 6th and 8th grade scores on standardized tests of intelligence, reading, and arithmetic, and their major subject teacher's evaluation. Ten criteria in all were used to identify the able children; in general, those students who scored 4 or more in the criteria were selected for the experimental group which comprised 50% of the student body, for a total of 717 students to take part in the special programs.

The programs included remedial reading, math, and speech, group and individual guidance with stress on college and career planning, cultural enrichment (e.g., theater and concert excursions) etc. Other features of the project were parent education and involvement, book fairs, techniques to instill motivation and improve the children's "self-image" and pride in their cultural background (40% of the student body were Puerto Rican; 45% Negro; 15% white and other.), and a Scholarship Fund which enabled students unable to pay to participate in some of the special events.

RESULTS: Some of the results reported for the Pilot Demonstration Guidance Project were: 1) Median gain for the first 7 months in remedial reading was 1.4 years, with individual gains as high as 5.4 years; 2) Median gain in remedial math was 1.2 years with individual gains up to 4.5 years; 3) Median score on the Stanford Reading Test given the 9th grade experimental group showed a gain of 15.8 months in paragraph meaning; 172 8th graders showed a gain of 2.0 years in comprehension, 2.2 years in vocabulary, and 2.1 years for the total Stanford Reading Test over a period of 1.4 years that had elapsed between tests.

CONCLUSION: That supposedly uneducable children from lower-socioeconomic backgrounds can successfully learn and progress in a reorganized school environment, and that parents as well as the children were enthusiastic about the program.

104. Sears, P. S., 1940. F, G, I
Levels of aspiration in academically successful and unsuccessful children.
J. abnor. soc. Psychol., 35, 498-536.

The hypothesis of this study was that one factor in the level of aspiration pattern for a given task is the characteristic past experience of success or failure which the individual associates with that task.

The evaluation of past experience of success or failure was made on the basis of achievement of the academic school subjects of reading and arithmetic in children of grade 4, 5, and 6. The tasks used to determine level of aspiration were derived from reading (multiple choice word-meaning items) and arithmetic (problems in addition). A "success" (success in both reading arithmetic), a "failure" (low in reading and arithmetic), and a "differential" group (prior success with reading, failure with arithmetic) were designated. These three groups matched on age (mental and chronological) and sex had 12 subjects each. The tasks were administered to the sample as speed tests. The subject was first told his performance time and was subsequently asked for his level of aspiration on the next task. A series of 20 tasks were presented to each subject. A discrepancy score was calculated; this score was the difference between the actual performance time and the stated level of aspiration.

The "failure" group when compared with the "success" group showed larger discrepancy scores and greater variability in discrepancy scores. The "differential" group showed lower discrepancy scores on reading but larger values on arithmetic; these results resembled the "success" group on reading and the "failure" group on arithmetic. Differences between the "differential" and "success" groups in reading and the "differential" and "failure" groups in arithmetic were small, "as would be predicted from the hypothesis that attitudes of success and failure influence the levels of aspiration."

105. Semler, I. J. and I. Iscoe, 1963. F, E, H
Comparative and developmental study of the learning abilities of Negro and white children under four conditions.
J. Ed. Psychol., 54, 38-44.

Object pairs and picture pairs of the same objects in conceptually similar and dissimilar sets provided 4 experimental conditions for comparing paired-associate learning of 135 Negro Ss with 141 white Ss across age levels 5 through 9 years.

Full scale WISC IQs were found to be significantly lower for Negro than for white subjects ($< .001$) across all ages but differences in paired-associate learning favoring white Ss at lower age levels disappeared by 9 years of age.

Racial differences were greatest on IQ at the 5 year level, probably due to the particular lower SES nursery center from which the subjects were drawn; however, negligible correlations were obtained between learning task scores and IQ for both races (.094 for whites and .189 for Negroes). Associating object pairs in conceptually similar sets was easiest and picture pairs in dissimilar sets most difficult for both races.

The authors conclude that "Our findings of no overall race differences in learning ability should not be minimized. They suggest that educators should exercise greatest caution in inferring learning ability from measured intellectual levels alone."

106. Sewell, W. H., A. O. Haller, and M. A. Straus, February 1957. G
Social Status and Educational and Occupational Aspiration.
American Sociological Review, XXII, 67-73.

PROBLEM: This examination rests on the testing of a series of null hypotheses based on the general hypothesis that, when the factor of intelligence is controlled, the aspiration levels of youth, whether male or female, are associated with the social status of their families.

METHOD: Questionnaires were administered to a random sample of all non-farm seniors in public and private high schools in Wisconsin in 1947. The sample size was 4167. Of the null hypotheses, two related to males and two related to females. The second variable in the hypotheses was educational or occupational aspirations.

CONCLUSIONS: All four of the null hypotheses were rejected. This finding supports the position that values in different status positions are important influences on educational and occupational aspirations. (Gottlieb and Reeves, 1963.)

107. Shaw, F., November 1963. D, C
Educating culturally deprived youth in urban centers.
Phi Delta Kappan, XLV, 2, 91-97.

The purpose of this article is "to trace the origins of the problem of educating culturally disadvantaged children and to show how some of the nation's larger school systems are trying to handle it..." Specific examples are cited from the 1959 Detroit project and the 1959 New York Higher Horizons Project.

The major goals of both the above projects that are discussed are:

1) Classroom teachers' work is reinforced by professional workers and by smaller classes;
2) The schools work to show the parents that education can open new opportunities for the children;
3) The entire community is involved;
4) Additional funds are provided.

Some other characteristics of these programs are Special Service Schools to offer the students extra help, early identification and hopefully, prevention of deprivation, programs for non-English speaking children, and career guidance programs.

The major conclusions seem to be that the researchers are beginning to see hopeful signs in the education of the culturally deprived.

108. Siller, J., 1957. E, H, I, A
Socio-economic status and conceptual thinking.
J. Abnorm. Soc. Psychol., 55, 367-371.

This study tests the following hypotheses: (1) High status children score higher than low status children on all tests of conceptual ability. (2) Form of symbolism contributes to status differences--greater difference predicted on verbal than nonverbal material. (3) When alternative correct dimension, HS children will more frequently select abstract answers than LS children. (4) When subjects are matched on non-verbal scores, HS children score more highly than LS on tests of verbal concepts dealing with the same kind on conceptualization as the verbal tests.

Subjects were 181 white sixth grade children (99 middle class and 82 low status). Mean IQ on Otis was 118 for HS and 103 for LS groups. Mean reading scores on Metropolitan Tests was 8.03 for HS and 5.97 for LS. Instruments used were verbal and non-verbal classification tests, verbal and non-verbal analogies tests, and vocabulary test with definitions varying along concrete-abstract dimensions.

Results showed hypotheses 1 and 2 fully confirmed. Choice of definition types showed a tendency toward abstraction which was significantly greater for HS group than for LS group, but author notes that order of preference of types of definitions is identical for both groups. Hypothesis 4 was confirmed, but hypothesis 5 was not confirmed.

When, however, groups were matched on IQ, none of the above differences remained. The author indicated that this is due to dropping of lower extreme of the low status group and suggests that status differences in conceptual ability which are usually noted may be largely attributable to the existence of a group of extremely low scorers in the LS group. He suggests that this very low group may come from families which are not striving for mobility, but does not have the data to investigate this question.

109. Silverman, Susan B., 1963. F, G, A
Self-images of upper-middle class and working class young adolescents.
Masters thesis, University of Chicago.

It was hypothesized that differences between social classes in personality (self-image) should exist due to differential socialization and value orientations. Using the work of Kahl and Sears, the general prediction was made that working class children would be characterized by repressive behavior patterns and upper-middle class children would be characterized by expressive behavior.

A form of the semantic differential was administered to 190 upper-middle class Ss (100 male, 90 female) and 134 working class Ss (56 male, 78 female). All Ss were white and in 7th and 8th grades; average age was 13 years.

The main hypotheses regarding class differences in self-images were supported. In particular, ratings in the direction of respectability and restraint were marked in the working class and not as evident in the upper-middle class. As was predicted, class differences were more evident for the boys than the girls.

Within each social class a sex-differential emerged. In the upper-middle class expressive (independent) behavior seemed particularly evident in the boys while the girls seemed to exhibit an element of restraint. In the working class the boys seemed most "internal" or restrained and the girls showed an element of expressiveness.

It is suggested that the respectability orientation of the working class contains elements which may make progressive educational methods incompatible with the cultural orientation.

110. Smith, H. P. and Marcia Anderson, 1962. G, A
Racial and family experience correlates of mobility aspiration.
J. Negro Education, 31, 117-124.

Thirty-three Negro and 33 white high school students, matched for age, sex, intelligence, and social status (all classes IV and V), served as subjects to test the relationship between mobility aspiration (Rosen's achievement syndrome), race, and family experience measured by Dynes et. al. questionnaire on affectional patterns in the family.

The results as a whole showed no consistent association between the independent variables and mobility aspiration. Results: (a) Negroes and whites did not differ in achievement motivation; (b) the achievement value orientation of the whites was significantly higher than that of the Negroes (Rosen's scale); (c) the Negroes had significantly higher educational and vocational aspirations and in contrast to the whites, valued success more than happiness in their careers; (d) There was no relationship between the measure of family experiences (sat.-unsatisfactory) and mobility aspiration. Authors concluded that the tendency of Negro youth to have higher educational-vocational aspirations seems to be on a fantasy level rather than a reality level. Study fails to confirm relationship found by Rosen and by Clark, Dynes, and Dinitz between race, family experience and mobility aspiration.

111. Stendler, Celia B., 1951. C, D, G
Social class differences in parental attitude toward school at grade 1 level.
Child Development, 22, 37-46.

Data with regard to parental belief in and support of the school and grade 1 level were collected by means of parent interviews and analyzed for possible social class differences. These data were in five different areas: pre-school attendance, parental educational aspirations for the child, preparation for school, parental criticism of the school, parental reception of report card.

Two interviews were completed with 212 parents whose children were to enter first grade in the Fall. Parents were typed as to social class using the Warner, Meeker, and Eells technique. Five social classes were defined.

The results showed, with regard to educational aspirations, parental expectations for children became less ambitious "as one goes down the social ladder." Half of the lower class mothers, however, reported that they expected their children to finish high school which contrasts sharply with percentages of lower class who do finish high school at the present time.

No social class differences were found in parental criticisms of the school.

Parents reported children to have the following skills prior to school entrance: counting: .83% (of 9Ss) of Upper, 95% (of 51 Ss) of upper-middle, 100% (of 61 Ss) of lower-middle, 88% (of 76 Ss) of upper-lower, 100% (of 15 Ss) of lower-lower could count. Reading: 66% (of 9 Ss) of upper, 22% (of 51 Ss) of upper-middle, 16% (of 61 Ss) of lower-middle, 14% (of 76 Ss) of upper-lower, and 16% (of 15 Ss) of lower-lower could read.

112. Stendler, Celia B. and N. Young, 1951. C, D, G
Impact of first grade entrance upon socialization of the child; changes after eight months of school.
Child Development, 22, 113-122.

This study was a follow-up of a study which was an attempt to determine certain changes in the socialization process as the result of first grade entrance. This study was made after eight months of schooling.

Specifically, the purpose of this study was to see (1) whether improvement in behavior, noted after school entrance, persisted through the child's first grade year, (2) whether negative changes in adjustment noted by mothers occurred with change in attitude toward school and teacher, and (3) whether parents differed according to social class in attitude toward the school.

Follow-up interviews were conducted with 202 mothers of first grade children in a mid-western community approximately eight months after the start of first grade. Distribution of families according to social class was reported using the techniques of Warner, Meeker, and Eells. Occupation, house type, dwelling area, and source of income were used in class typing.

The authors report that, with respect to every trait except one about which mothers were questioned, there was a significant difference away from deterioration in behavior compared with 1st month. The authors reported that few children changed in attitude toward school and teacher after eight months of first grade life. Hence, no conclusion was drawn as to whether change in attitude toward school has anything to do with changes in behavior. With regard to attitude toward school, the authors reported a significant difference occurred between classes in answer to the question as to whether anything should be done by school or teacher, with upper class parents most frequently responding affirmatively. No social class differences were found with respect to reception of report cards.

113. Stivers, El, 1958. G, I, A
Motivation for college in high-school boys.
School Review, 66, 341-350.

A study of high school students in the upper quarter of their class in academic ability to determine the source of motivation for college.

Studied 41 boys at the 10th grade level (31 motivated for college and 10 non-motivated for college.). Used a number of aptitude tests (PTA, Davis-Eels, Goodenough-Draw-A-Man test, etc.) to determine academic ability. Used Warner's Index of Status Characteristics, McClelland's TAT procedure to measure n Ach, interviews to determine predisposing experiences, and the California Psychological Inventory.

Findings:

1) Need achievement is the most important variable determining motivation for college in this sample.
2) A larger number of persons representing various socializing agencies, (family, peer group, school, etc.) had set college as a standard of achievement for college motivated boys.
3) In this sample very little social status difference was found between motivated and non-motivated boys.
4) Some differences on the California Psychological Inventory favored the motivated boys such as Independence and Autonomy.
5) On the Strodtbeck value scale the motivated boys had more values associated with academic and status-oriented achievement.
6) Motivated boys were more active in religious groups.

CONCLUSION: College going is not a result of middle class socialization in general, but more particularly of experiences with parents, teachers, peers, and others who as early as elementary school days set college as a standard of achievement for the student.

114. Stivers, El, 1959. G, I, A
Motivation for college in high-school girls.
School Review, 67, 320-334.

This is part of a larger study of the sources of motivation for college in high school students in the upper fourth of ability.

The author studied 45 girls at the 10th grade (32 motivated for college, and 13 non-motivated for college). Used aptitude tests, Index of Social Status, McClelland's TAT need achievement, interviews, and California Psychological Inventory.

Findings:

1) Social class was the most important variable differentiating the two groups (different from results for boys).
2) Need achievement was slightly higher for non-motivated students than for college motivated students (different from results for boys).
3) A large number of persons representing various socializing agencies had set college as a standard of achievement for motivated group (same as boys).
4) Motivated students had higher scores in Personal and Intellectual Efficiency on the California Inventory.

CONCLUSION: Social roles for women make it possible for able women with high need achievement to find their careers in homemaking rather than in professions requiring college.